The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 3, 1899.

The Week.

The feeling among the volunteers who have been serving in the Philippines is made clear enough when a detachment of them escapes the region where the censorship prevails and reaches this country, as did the Nebraska regiment and the Utah artillery on Sunday. All the dispatches from San Francisco agree that the soldiers express the greatest dissatisfaction with the management of the campaign by Gen. Otis, and the warmest satisfaction at escaping from further service in the war of conquest. Col. Mulford, commander of the Nebraska troops, is quoted as saying that "just one man in the entire regiment reenlisted," while Lieut.-Col. Eager of the same regiment is represented as believing that "it will take at least twenty years to entirely pacify the Filipinos," and as stating that "all the men think the price we are paying for our new possessions is far in excess of what they are worth." It is a serious matter for the Administration when each returning regiment distributes in a host of communities men who know from experience what the war in the Philippines really is, and who hold such views as these about it.

How the Philippine censorship worked in actual practice is lucidly explained by the *Evening Post's* Manila correspondent. It was designed to keep the Filipinos in ignorance of what was going on; but those really kept in ignorance were the people of the United States. It was the American press in Manila that was censored; the Spanish papers published what they pleased. News to and from the United States was suppressed or cut down to a meaningless nothing; but the Filipinos, by means of cablegrams from Hong-Kong in Chinese, got all the information they desired. All the American military plans were known in advance, so it would seem; at least they were steadily frustrated in their main intention of shutting in and capturing large bodies of insurgent troops. All told, therefore, the censorship led to the ridiculous result that it deceived those who should have been enlightened, and enlightened those whom it aimed to deceive. As the correspondent points out, the army officers on the spot had all along a view of the situation radically different from the official view at Washington, and it is the army view which the event has shown to be the correct one.

It is an interesting question whether the Washington authorities were misled as regards the condition of affairs in Luzon, or whether they deliberately closed their eyes to the truth. The Hong-Kong *Telegraph* of June 8 attributes the successive failures in the Philippines to "the ignorance of the Americans with respect to the Filipinos." It refers particularly to the terms offered by the President in his original proclamation, and later in the peace negotiations, and says that they were simply "farcical" from the Filipino standpoint. Under Spanish rule the natives had enjoyed rights of local government greater in some important respects than those the self-styled liberator, McKinley, was magnanimously proposing to give them. The Filipinos, says the *Telegraph*, "are right to reject them," if they are not yet reduced to unconditional surrender. It goes on to say that the American Government "requires enlightenment upon the subject of the Philippines and the Filipino people," and that it is time for it to realize that it is not dealing with "a rabble of uneducated savages," but with leaders at least who are "accomplished and civilized." It is, we say, difficult to make out whether our high and mighty Imperialists at Washington had misleading information about people and country, or loftily waved aside facts they did not like. We know that the President's circumstances last December and January were not such as to inspire in him a humble desire to know the unpleasant truth. He was flattered to the top of his bent. He was exalted by his toadies to a pedestal so lofty that it is no wonder if he could not believe that a set of wretched Filipinos would dare to resist his nod. But even if he then had the excuse of ignorance, he has it no longer. Everybody can now see how we blundered in the Philippines. But is there any sign that the President, with new knowledge, is taking a new attitude? No man knows except Mr. McKinley, and he will not tell. Otis appears to have clapped the censorship on him also.

Senator Burrows of Michigan served public notice, in an interview on Monday, that the Republican party cannot stand the long continuance of the war in the Philippines without risking the loss of the next Presidential election. Here is the explicit language which he uses:

> "It is my judgment that, if the war in the Philippines is still in progress next year, and the end is not then in sight, the situation will be to the disadvantage of the Republican party. The only hope for the party and the country, I might add, is in a speedy change of conditions in the Philippines. Unless the war in the Philippines speedily ends, it will become an important political factor, and its continuance will make the outlook for Republican success uncertain, to say the least."

The remainder of the interview does not count for much. Mr. Burrows says: "If I could have had my way, we would have simply taken a coaling station or a base of supplies in the island of Luzon, we would not have paid a penny to Spain, and we would have our foothold in the East without the sacrifice of life and money." He thinks that "the President is acting wisely in endeavoring to restore peace and order in the Philippines by sending an increased army to assist Gen. Otis," and says that "it is to be sincerely hoped that the fresh troops will be able to establish the authority of the United States"; but he declares that, if the additional troops sent cannot restore peace, "Congress will have to deal with the problem." Of course he has no wisdom to contribute to the solution, although he goes so far as to admit the possibility of finally surrendering the islands.

The Hon. Steve Elkins comes to the point in the business of Alger's removal with a blunt directness equal to Foraker's. He says that the deposed Secretary had endured a series of "undeserved assaults," and had stood up manfully under "abuse which might otherwise have been thrown at the President." Yes, so Alger himself has said all along; so Mr. McKinley himself said for month after month. "Why, my dear sir," he would say to one troubled protestant after another, "to attack Mr. Alger is to attack me." That majestic answer should have stopped the assaults at once; but as it did not, and the carping went on, the President let dignity go hang, and dismissed Alger for having rendered, as he himself put it, "faithful service." Never was there so overloaded a scapegoat as Mr. Alger, and it is very doubtful if he succeeds in carrying off the sins of the Administration into the wilderness of Michigan. Indeed, he is broadly intimating that he does not mean to try to, but is going to leave on the White House steps several neat bundles of political sins, carefully addressed to their rightful owner within.

There is a good deal of pricking up of imperialistic ears over the disturbances in San Domingo and the dispatch of war-ships thither, but not as much as there would have been two years ago. We have now such a full line of imperial "responsibilities" that even our most greedy empire-builders are willing to wait a bit before assuming more. Still, there is one fetching argument which they say they are unable to resist. If "anarchy" should prevail in the island, then we should have to step in and take it (including the government

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of Hayti, too, apparently). We are now the greatest suppressors of anarchy in the world. We do not want to meddle, but the sight of anarchy fires our blood, and we are off at once to extinguish it. That is what took us to the Philippines, and the world sees how anarchy disappeared the moment we showed ourselves there. It is, of course, only foreign anarchy that rouses us. We can see our own cities turned over to mobs, and Judge Lynch holding court in large sections of the country, with equanimity, but anarchy anywhere abroad we regard as a call for our immediate appearance on the scene. So if any of the Dominicans want to be annexed, all they have to do is to act like a set of turbulent anarchists, and we will instantly mark them for our own. Our appetite for anarchy is insatiate.

"The late Colonel Monroe" put in an appearance at The Hague on Tuesday week. Our delegates filed a solemn warning that the United States must be understood as adhering to their traditional policy of having nothing to do with European quarrels, and allowing Europe to have nothing to do with American quarrels. The other Powers did not ask, as they might have done, "Then what are you here for?" or "What are you doing in the Philippines?" They silently acquiesced in the American tribute to the now very much departed Monroe. It was a little piece of humbug which deceived nobody, and therefore did no great harm. Uncle Sam with his clutch on the Philippines, all in the name of no interference with European questions, and renewing his cry, "You stick to your continent and I'll stick to mine," is a slightly comic figure. But the decorous delegates seem to have done all their laughing in their sleeves.

Cynical people cannot be blamed for remarking on the contrast between the fervid advocacy of arbitration by England and the United States at The Hague, and the persistent refusal of each to arbitrate the only serious international difference it now has on hand. Great Britain says it cannot arbitrate its dispute with the Transvaal, since it does not become the suzerain power to arbitrate with the vassal state. But, after all, in all that relates to its internal government, the Transvaal is an independent state. This has had recent international affirmation. England addressed a note to the Italian Government, and perhaps some others, asking that the shipment of arms to the Transvaal be stopped. But the polite answer was that the Transvaal, as an independent state, not at war, could buy munitions of war wherever it chose. And as the main quarrel of England with President Krüger turns on the proper interpretation of the London Convention, it would seem to be a case where the decision of impartial jurists could be most properly and happily sought and accepted. But England, away from The Hague, feels insulted at the suggestion. In our own dispute with Canada, we have not refused point-blank to arbitrate, but we have insisted upon a manifestly unfair arbitrating tribunal. To demand only South American arbitrators is practically to demand prejudiced arbitrators, since our Government has officially declared our will to be law on all this continent. If Canada were to submit her case to South American jurists, how could she tell that they would not be under the spell of Mr. Olney's famous "fiat"?

A fuller report of the proceedings at The Hague, when explosive or expansive bullets were under discussion, throws a somewhat better light upon the attitude of the English and American delegates. The resolution offered by a Russian military expert was distinctly aimed at the English Dum-Dum bullet. This was pointed out by Capt. Crozier, our military attaché, who proposed the adoption of a rule couched in broader terms, so as to exclude any bullet making an unnecessarily cruel wound. He intimated that several countries were experimenting with rifles designed to give a twisting or rotary motion to the small-calibre steel bullets, and said that their tearing through a man would be worse than being hit by a Dum-Dum. He therefore offered an amendment to the rule so as to prohibit any missile more destructive than absolutely necessary to put a man *hors de combat*. This, however, was voted down by the Continental delegates; whereupon the English and Americans refused to vote against expansive bullets, and also declined to sign the convention prohibiting them. Their consistency or wisdom in doing so is not very clear; but they are at least able to say that they advocated a more comprehensive rule than that finally adopted by the majority of the Conference.

It is announced on both sides of the water that a treaty of reciprocity between France and the United States has been negotiated, by virtue of which we shall obtain the same privileges in French markets that are enjoyed by England, Germany, Switzerland, and other countries which are under the conventional or minimum tariff. France keeps two kinds of tariff "in stock," one with relatively high duties, that is applicable to all countries with which she has no commercial treaty, and the other adjustable at lower rates, and applicable to countries which make lower rates for the admission of French goods. We borrowed this device in framing the McKinley tariff, and it was repeated in somewhat different terms in the Dingley bill. In fact, it was repeated twice in the latter measure. Section 3 of the act seems to have been specially designed for an arrangement with France. It authorized the President, without the concurrence of the Senate, to enter into an agreement with any country producing and exporting brandies or other spirits, champagne and other sparkling wines, still wines, vermuth, paintings and statuary, whereby the duties on those articles shall be reduced in exchange for like concessions by the exporting country in favor of the products and manufactures of the United States. An agreement thus made is to go into effect by the issuance of the President's proclamation, and to remain in force during his pleasure. This provision, so obviously intended for France, has not been availed of in the negotiation which has now been concluded.

Section 4 of the same act authorizes the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties of reciprocity with any country in respect of any kinds of goods, wares, and merchandise, by reducing the duties on the same by not more than 20 per cent. for a period of not more than five years. It is under this clause that the present treaty has been negotiated. Consequently, it cannot go into effect until ratified by the Senate by a majority of two-thirds. It requires ratification by the Senate of France also, and there are already loud mutterings of discontent in that quarter, and predictions that it will not be ratified. Exactly what the objections on the French side are is not stated, since the details of the treaty have not been made public. It is probable, however, that some articles of both manufacture and agriculture have been put on the list which have excited the apprehension of French producers of similar articles, and it is not improbable that they may be strong enough to prevent ratification. France is eaten up by the protective dogma. The masses are a prey to the classes in the most approved republican fashion, and it is pretty safe to assume that nothing can pass the ordeal of ratification against which any considerable class interest is arrayed. It would be useless to speculate on the fate of the treaty on our side of the water until we know what it contains. It is announced that champagne is not included in its terms, although Congress evidently contemplated that it should be. We cannot say that this is a defect, since the drinkers of champagne are not usually in need of relief, while those who are so can obtain it by not drinking champagne.

The agitation of last spring against the Baggage Abuse has resulted in the organization of the American Travellers'

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Defence Association, an extremely strong body. The object of the Association is the repeal of the $100-limit clause of the Dingley act; and, in accordance with this purpose, branch organizations will be formed in various cities of the country to get signers to petitions to Congress requesting such action. The recent contention, that the language of the clause limiting its application to "articles purchased abroad by such residents of the United States" virtually deprives it of much of its force, since it cannot be made to apply to presents or articles purchased by some other person than the one in whose possession they are, will be of material assistance in securing the repeal. The law was odious before this discovery was made, and was virtually a failure also, since the amounts collected under it were absurdly small as compared with the claims made by its advocates at the time of its enactment as to what it would bring in if it were to be put in force. If, now, even these amounts are to be made still smaller, and the law itself is to be made ridiculous because of its blundering phraseology, its repeal ought to be a comparatively easy matter.

Some commotion has been stirred up in the Populist and Silver Republican ranks by a reported declaration of Gov. Stone of Missouri, the chairman *pro tem.* of the National Democratic committee, in the following words:

> "The Democratic party henceforth must maintain its individuality. If other parties desire to build a parallel line alongside the Democratic tracks, no objection can be raised, but a consolidation under the terms of which the Democratic party will surrender in part control over its own organization, or place any of its affairs in the hands of those who do not fully accept its doctrine and disclaim allegiance to all other parties, is not to be tolerated under any circumstances."

There is very good reason to believe that this is an authentic deliverance, that it represents the views of the Democratic leaders, and that the policy which it foreshadows will be carried out in the convention of next year. There will be no Tom Watson encumbrance on the next national ticket. The Populists are a disappearing faction, and the Silver Republicans have already disappeared. The next Democratic ticket will be composed of two Democrats, and there will be no assistants outside of the party. Probably Mr. Bryan has influence enough with the Populists to bring most of them into the Democratic party, and the remainder—the Middle-of-the-Road men—will hardly be numerous enough to nominate a separate ticket. Probably the chief aim of Gov. Stone's outgiving is to get rid of an element which will insist upon making silver a prominent issue in the campaign of next year, and thus dragging the party to inevitable defeat. The present is the right time to notify the silver fanatics to flock all alone by themselves. If Mr. George Fred Williams insists upon flocking with them, the Democratic party in Massachusetts will be the gainer.

The boycott now going on in the city of Cleveland seems likely to add a new terror to the business world. A strike has been in progress on the part of the employees of the Big Consolidated street-car line. It took the usual course. When new men were found to take the strikers' positions, the old hands resorted to violence. Then the military were called out to protect the company's property and the lives of their new workmen. After a week of turmoil and some bloodshed the riots were quelled. Then the old employees gave orders to the community not to ride on the cars of the Big Consolidated Company under penalty of the boycott, and they stationed men at various points along the line to take down the names of persons who disobeyed the order. These persons, if engaged in business, were to be inscribed on a certain list of names, and no purchases were to be made at their shops. This is the ordinary form of boycott, but it has been reserved for Cleveland to introduce a new variety. An order was sent out that nobody should sell anything to any person who was found riding on a car of the Consolidated Company. The Company, on its part, is not idle. It has sent boycotted men to buy articles at stores which have been notified not to sell, and it intends to bring suit against those who refuse to sell. Private citizens have already begun suits against merchants who have refused to sell, and naturally the city is all upside-down in a business point of view. It is impossible to suppose that such a condition can last long. Nor can the Consolidated Company afford to yield to this new attack. It might better run all its cars empty and levy assessments on its shareholders to pay operating expenses, since yielding to the boycott is the same thing as surrendering its property.

The tax-rates for the different boroughs of the city reveal to the property-owners of old New York the full meaning of the phrase "Reaping the fundamental advantages of consolidation." The rate for the old city is 47 points above that of last year, and 34 points above that of 1897. The Comptroller is of the opinion that we have reason to rejoice that it is not 20 points higher than it is. Brooklyn, on the contrary, has the lowest rate of all the boroughs, and the lowest for thirty years. Whatever reason the old city may have for regretting consolidation, there can be no question that Brooklyn has gained immensely, for the burden of taxation upon her shoulders has been perceptibly lightened by the simple process of transferring a large part of it to the shoulders of taxpayers on this side the river. The fact, which was as certain as fate when consolidation was under consideration, has become fate now, namely, that the chief source of income from which to defray the expenses of improving and developing the new city is the old city, for that section alone has in it capacity for increased taxation. Other forecasts as to the working of the new charter are also coming true too quickly.

The refusal of Esterhazy to testify in the Dreyfus court-martial, although he was assured of safety in doing so, is the tribute of a scoundrel to common decency. It is something like a blush. Esterhazy has a large endowment of "cheek," but to ask him to stand up before a jury of his fellow-officers and acknowledge that he committed forgery and perjury in order to send an innocent man to life imprisonment or to the scaffold is, in his opinion, asking too much. Under these circumstances everything which depended upon Esterhazy's testimony in the former trial falls to the ground. But, for that matter, everything else incriminating Dreyfus fell to the ground a long time ago.

The new Minister of War in France, Gen. Galliffet, is taking hold of the French army problem with splendid audacity and vigor. He is punishing talkative and insubordinate generals right and left, from the highest to the lowest, in a way to prove that he meant what he said when he took office—namely, that he did not desire it, but that he would discharge its duties without fear. That the army has been terribly demoralized through its prominence in the public life of the nation during the past few years is certain. It has apparently lost the root idea of discipline in an army under a free government, which is, strict subordination to the civil authorities and silence in political matters. So inflated have the officers become by all the flattery showered upon them, that they have taken to talking in public as if that were the chief duty of a soldier. Accustomed in their barracks and clubs and in their cafés to speak contemptuously of the *pékin* civilians in charge of the government, they insensibly drift into blurting out their sentiments on public occasions. So Gen. Zurlinden did in Paris not long ago; so Gen. Négrier did at Auxonne the other day. The latter has been promptly disciplined for his indiscretion, and it is said that some signal mark of displeasure is shortly to be visited upon Zurlinden. If the peasant President succeeds in teaching the French army to know its true place, he will have done much to hold the republic to its true course.

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THE INSATIATE REFORMERS.

Secretary Gage begins his article in the *Forum* in defence of the President's civil-service order by saying that it "has been the occasion of much misunderstanding and misrepresentation." He must have been confirmed in this opinion when he read the letter of the Secretary of the Civil-Service Reform League, published on Monday. But he will have to confess that a good deal of the misunderstanding and misrepresentation is his own. The categorical refutation from the official records of many of his assertions of fact, and the exposure of certain concealments or evasions in Mr. Gage's statement of the law and practice, show that either he or some subordinate of his was deceived or attempting to deceive.

"Very few" removals of any kind have been made in the Revenue Service, asserted Mr. Gage. Mr. McAneny cites official figures to prove that 50 per cent. of the entire service has been removed since March 1, 1897. Is 50 per cent. "very few"? In all the removals made, continued Secretary Gage, there had been "strict conformity" with the President's rule requiring "the filing of charges and the opportunity for defence." The records of the Civil-Service Commission show case after case of collectors defying this rule, alleging "verbal instructions" from "the Department," and upheld by their superior officers in their open violation of the law as regards both removals and appointments. Mr. Gage declared that the Civil-Service Commissioners themselves recommended the exemption of deputy collectors from the classified service. Yes; but why? Because, says Mr. McAneny (and, of course, he speaks by the card), "they preferred absolute exemption to a continued state of disregard of the law." If Mr. Gage was to appeal to the Commission at all, he should have stated the whole truth about it. If he had done so, he would have admitted that it recommended only 1,000 exemptions, instead of 10,000, and that so far from being unable, as the Secretary of the Treasury asserted, to furnish eligible lists, it "was prepared to furnish as many eligibles as might be needed, at the shortest notice."

We will not pursue the matter in detail. The defence which Mr. Gage made in his own name and the President's has been so thoroughly riddled, in both its facts and its implications, that anything further from the same source will have to be accepted with great suspicion, unless buttressed by official statistics. Mr. McAneny's general conclusion is that the net result of the President's order, and of his tolerance of violations of the law on an enormous scale by his subordinates, is to restore the spoils system in spirit and in effect. Few impartial men will doubt this. The evidence is too overwhelming. At the very moment when Mr. Gage is making his virtuous protestations, the dispatches from Baltimore tell of the Collector of Customs there openly defying the Civil-Service Commissioners and the law, and being upheld in his course by the Secretary of the Treasury. The mischief is done. The idea has gone abroad through the whole service that the "civil-service-reform nonsense" is over. What the Ohio and Kentucky Republicans said in their platforms, is being translated into act. Encouraged, not restrained any longer, by their superior officers, the collectors and heads of departments are openly looting the Federal offices the country over. The heart has been taken out of the reform by the weak connivance of Secretary Gage and President McKinley.

It is a melancholy business, but on one aspect of it we must say a word further. It is declared again, in certain namby-pamby quarters, that the civil-service reformers are unreasonable. They ask too much. In spite of all that the President can do for them, they go on grumbling. They wanted Mr. Gage, and he gave them Gage; yet here they are repudiating their own man. "Are not their attacks," inquires the flabby-reform *Review of Reviews*, "calculated to shatter faith in human nature, and to promote the very cynicism that lies at the root of so much that is bad in our public and social life?"

Now, to this we say, in the first place, that Mr. Gage was approved as Secretary because he was expected to establish the gold standard. He was, of course, a reputed civil-service reformer, and that was a minor reason for rejoicing over his selection, and it distinctly was *not* expected that he would make up for failure to establish the gold standard by consenting to see the civil-service law made a mockery. But there is one point about all this which politicians and other silly folk always overlook. It is that reformers never guarantee to support even one of their own friends in office unless he deserves support. It is no answer to say to them that they are attacking "their own man." If he does not live up to their and his own professed principles, then he is not their man. In fact, they are bound to be even more severe with one of their own men than with an outsider. When they urge a candidate for office, or hail his appointment to it, they by no means pledge themselves to keep still about his delinquencies. They will rather cry out the louder if they find him adding personal recreancy to official misconduct. They are bound to do so, and that is the reason why they can never be "placated" by having an appointment made to suit them. They are implacable except by perfect honesty in office and complete devotion to the public good. Are they then insatiate? Yes, they are; but so is truth, so is honor. A man who occasionally lies cannot satisfy a lover of truth. A base action only once a month is enough to make a man out dishonorable. So it is the lapses of so-called reformers in office which show that they have not the root of the matter in them, and which call for their stern arraignment, as Mr. Gage has been arraigned by the men who were prepared to be his most enthusiastic supporters. And if anybody has "shattered faith in human nature," it is surely the man whose acts belie his professions, not the man who feels compelled to call attention to the fact.

THE M'KINLEY WAY.

What is likely to make a painful impression upon average good citizens, in connection with the spoliation of the civil service by President McKinley and Secretary Gage, is the deceptive and underhanded way in which the thing has been done. There has been nothing open and above board about it. What has been done has been done, for the most part, secretly and behind closed doors. To honeycomb the administrative service in the interest of spoils, while ostentatiously protesting that the edifice was only being renovated and improved, seems to have been the policy of the Administration; yet so shrewdly and cunningly has the work been carried on that, but for the vigilance of civil-service reformers, most of the illegal appointments and removals, so remorselessly set forth by Mr. McAneny, would probably not have been known by the general public at all.

It is clear enough, however, that all this is quite of a piece with the general method of the present Administration. Since McKinley came to the throne, frankness and transparency have ceased to prevail. The ordinary conduct of public affairs has been surrounded with a strange secrecy, as if business of the utmost moment were being transacted. On no subject whatever has President McKinley yet made a clear and simple statement of his opinions, or purposes, or hopes. With all his pretence of doing so, he has never yet taken the public into his confidence. What he has done has been to go about with a dignified and serious air, delivering himself from time to time of platitudinous phrases as of one who, if he would, could reveal unutterable things. To keep himself right with the dear people, however, that they may vote for him at the next election, he has allowed it to be given out that he is in favor of everything good, and opposed to everything evil, considered by his party managers to be worth favoring or opposing at the present moment. In the meantime, while thus facing the voters with an earnest front, and bespeaking their confidence while he performed in silence the great work laid upon him, he has quietly allowed his subordinates to violate both the letter and the spirit of

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the civil-service law, and has himself made some of the worst appointments recorded since that law went upon the statute-book.

The same combination of mystery and double-dealing attended the conduct of the war with Spain, and continues to characterize the management of affairs in the Philippines. No reasonable person, of course, would be foolish enough to ask a commander-in-chief to publish beforehand the details of his proposed campaigns, or to set no bounds for the omnipresent reporter. But the McKinley secrecy is not of this sort. Its use is, rather, to cover up and gloss over maladministration, incompetency, or fraud. When the soldiers before Santiago were threatened with annihilation because of the inefficiency of the War Department, the official news bureau curtailed its operations, pending "important developments." When the public were ready to take the President at his word, and express an opinion on the question of keeping the Philippines, a pall fell upon the negotiations at Paris, in the alleged interest of "diplomacy." When our troops in Luzon began to grow impatient of severe fighting in an unworthy cause, a censorship was established at Manila, and edited dispatches from Washington took the place of authentic news. In each case, the veil of secrecy and mysteriousness was said to be necessary because of the important work that was being done, or the delicate nature of the negotiations being carried on; yet, as time has gone on, and occasional glimpses behind the veil have been obtained, it has quite often been seen either that nothing whatever was going on, or else that advantage had been taken of the darkness and retirement to push on some questionable scheme.

Students of European politics know how much of the business of government and diplomacy is carried on behind guarded doors, and how important papers, on matters of great public interest, are often years in seeing the light. It may be that the present Administration, eager to give the United States a "standing" among nations, has thought it needful to imitate some of the methods of European statesmen. There is this very important difference, however, between the secrecy and evasiveness of men like Gladstone and Bismarck and that affected by President McKinley. The former, however much their methods might be open to dispute, were nevertheless actually engaged upon business of international importance, and upon constructive work in itself part of a definite and far-reaching policy. With President McKinley, on the contrary, the primary aim is immediate personal and party success. If he has either principles or policy, dissociated from the mandate of his party, the country is yet to be informed of what they are. In adopting European methods, he takes the form without the substance. Secrecy, with him, becomes underhandedness; skill degenerates into trickery; wisdom changes to deceit.

RELATIONS OF CIVIL AND MILITARY POWER.

One matter of grave concern, in the settlement of affairs in our new possessions, is the relation of the military to the civil power. At present all the islands, in the absence of Congressional action, are virtually under military rule, the President governing them as military head of the nation and commander in a conquered territory. In the Philippines, especially, there is likely to be a disposition to maintain for some time a considerable body of troops, ostensibly, at least, to uphold the authority of the United States. Assuming the cessation of the present war, and the establishment, by Congress, of a form of civil government for the Philippines, by which the civilized inhabitants are given some effective voice in the conduct of their affairs, what will be the relation between this Government and the army and navy?

Theoretically, of course, the question offers no great difficulty. The legal relations between the civil and military powers, under our constitutional system, are well defined, and are hardly any longer matter of dispute. In time of peace the military arm is wholly subordinate to the civil authority, having, so far as the operations of civil government are concerned, no right of independent initiative, and not even a presumption in its favor. As an agent of the civil authority, and subject to its direction, the army may be used to repress disorder and put down domestic violence; but it cannot lawfully interfere with the ordinary conduct of affairs, or take action of a political character, save to defend a lawful government from overt attack. For the employment of a military force to attain political ends, or to uphold civil authority when the latter is able to stand alone, there is no sanction in the Constitution nor in the system of law erected upon it. So far as the United States is concerned, the maintenance of the militia and a standing army looks only to the remote contingency of foreign war, or to such a condition of internal disturbance as the sheriff and his posse cannot control.

The trouble will come in the practical application of the legal theory. Once the Philippines are really, as well as nominally, under our dominion, and warlike operations are no longer carried on by either party, the continued presence of an American army in the islands will be defended, doubtless, on the ground of danger of foreign invasion, and the necessity of keeping order and protecting life and property. If we could be assured, beyond peradventure, that the use of the troops would be limited to the attainment of these ends, it would contribute much to peace of mind. But with a party "policy" to be carried out, with a form of government established by statute, and a corps of officials on the ground to set things going, there will unquestionably be great temptation, in case of difficulty or opposition, to call in some soldiers to straighten matters out. And there *will* be difficulty and opposition, of course. It is idle to think that we can give the Filipinos, or anybody else, representative or republican government, and yet escape the complications and disputes with which that form of government seems always to be attended. There will surely be disputed elections, and, quite likely, rival local governments. The United States, as lord paramount, will be appealed to to take sides and settle the controversy. With a powerful force at its command, how is it likely to act? Will it allow a solution to be found by the peaceful and educative, but slow, methods of discussion and legal procedure, or will it yield to the desire to "do something," and interfere with rifle and bayonet to bring about peace?

We have had in this country, within the memory of the present generation, a conspicuous illustration of the employment of military force to uphold and assist civil government. For ten years after the close of the civil war, the experiment was on trial in the South. The conditions, to be sure, were anomalous. The unsettled condition of the States lately in rebellion, the sudden enfranchisement of some millions of negroes, and the apparent necessity of so reorganizing the State governments as to insure acceptance of the political principles settled by the war, were the grounds on which the extraordinary action of the dominant party was defended. How dark the page is which records the events of the reconstruction period, is only too well known. The troops did, to a degree, secure peace and order. They did make life and property comparatively safe. They did enable government to be set up and maintained in places where, but for their presence, a measure of anarchy might, for a brief time, have obtained. But the more the inner facts of the situation were revealed, the clearer it became that the main use of the army was to support arbitrary and partisan political methods, and that, so long as the troops remained, democratic government must be only a shadow and a dream. It was not so much to pacify and restore the South as to get control of its political machinery for the Republican party that the soldiers were chiefly used; and it was the recognition of this fact that eventually led even the friends of the policy to condemn it.

It is the repetition of such occurrences in the Philippines that ought, in the in-

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terest of national honor, to be avoided. The Republican party, again in control of the government, is essaying to deal with a situation as difficult as that which confronted it at the close of the war of the rebellion. It boasts of its perfect organization, its aggressive policy, and its ability to carry affairs, if necessary, with a high hand, and not lose votes. It proposes to crush the rebellion in the Philippines, and to set up and maintain a government. From the party standpoint, this is well enough. But the people of the United States, it should remember, have no love for military rule. Whatever their views as to the civilization of the Filipinos, they will not patiently see political institutions of any sort forced upon the islanders at the command of an army officer. If the Filipinos are to have self-government at all, the American spirit requires that they be left free to work out their own salvation without the help of the army and navy, and that their inevitable blunders and mistakes be not seized upon as ground for forcible interference. There are two ways in which a country like the United States can establish republican institutions among alien and subject people. One is by forcibly uprooting discord and opposition, and arbitrarily imposing the new forms and methods upon the unwilling inhabitants. This sometimes brings temporary success, but its inevitable end is war. The other is by the slow and painful process of education, in which only open violence is repressed by force, and soldiers and marines do duty chiefly as a spectacle. There can be no question as to which of these two ways the United States owes it to itself to follow.

THE NEW PENSION RAID.

The instigator and leader of the G. A. R. movement to get Mr. Evans out of the Pension Bureau is "Corp." Tanner, claim agent. He is behind the various Encampment complaints of Mr. Evans's methods, and behind the appeals which veterans are making to the President to have Mr. Evans transferred to some other branch of the service. Ever since he was dismissed in disgrace from the office of Commissioner of Pensions, Tanner has struggled to make his successors odious by forcing upon them policies revolting to their common sense and patriotic instincts. His efforts have been made mostly through the medium of veterans' meetings of one sort and another. Such gatherings are composed of ninety per cent. of men who know nothing about the hidden machinery used for working up their "sentiment," and ten per cent. of skilled engineers. The meetings go where the machinery sends them. Just now Tanner appears to be intent on getting endorsements for a demand that the Commissioner of Pensions shall recognize as binding the ratings recommended by the medical examining boards.

What this means will be better understood in the light of the fact that there are some fifteen hundred such boards scattered through the country, each with its own ideas of the extent of the disability involved in this and that ailment. Compare the findings of a dozen such boards in any State, and you have Babel. It is on record that one board found an applicant suffering from seven separate disorders, like rheumatism, indigestion, etc., none of which presented any surface symptoms; it recommended that he be paid $30 a month for each of six, and $10 for the seventh, making a total of $190 a month. With a million pensioners on the roll, and others still coming, how long it would take to empty the Treasury at this rate can be figured by the rule of three. All examining boards are not of so generous a type, but they are virtually named by members of Congress and other representatives of the party in power who are not above playing for the "soldier vote." Once yield to Tanner's impudent demand, and there is no telling where the thing would end. Under the present practice of requiring the medical boards to send in diagnoses, and letting the awards be made by the central authority in Washington, the pension-roll is costly enough; but if the boards, politically appointed, and subject to local influences, were left to make the final decisions, the American taxpayer could save time by putting up his shutters at once and moving out of the country.

In fact, with the law in its present condition, the only protection to the Treasury rests in the honesty and firmness of one or two men. The Commissioner of Pensions passes upon a case in the first instance; and in a dispute over the construction of a law, the Secretary of the Interior, usually by the hand of an Assistant Secretary, makes a ruling to govern a whole class of cases. Corrupt or inefficient men in these offices can do more damage in four years than the best of their successors can undo in twenty. Raum's notorious "Order 164" furnishes a case in point. As long as that stood unchallenged, shrewd attorneys could rig up a case for an applicant by showing that he had a dollar's worth of dyspepsia and a dollar's worth of neuralgia, and a dollar's worth of each of four other complaints, and thus procure for him a six-dollar rating, which was enough to put him upon the roll. Once there, he was not only practically sure of staying, but his attorney was a slow fellow if he could not work in an examination for a rerating and a higher pension with every change of personnel in the nearest medical board. Of course, the claim agents had all the business they could do for a while, and the relics of their work are still a tax upon the Government, though it is now six years since Hoke Smith revoked the order.

How the claim agents will fight when attacked is shown by the Long case, which is not dead by any means, though now so generally forgotten. Commissioner Lochren found Charles D. Long, a Justice of the Supreme Court of the State of Michigan, drawing a pension of $72 a month for "total helplessness, requiring the regular aid and attendance of another person." Looking up the record, he found that Long had suffered a wound of the hip-bone, for which a pension of $50 had been granted in the regular way, but Tanner had raised the $50 to $72 without a medical examination. Meanwhile, as a magistrate, with a salary of $7,000 a year, Long was daily performing duty which he could not have performed if the constant attendance of another person had been necessary. Lochren, after trying in vain to bring him before the doctors for examination, suspended the unlawful pension. All attorneys who had been getting favors by irregular methods saw in this an assault upon their prestige, and Tanner set about collecting a fund to carry the case into the courts and test the right of a Commissioner to revise a pension once granted by a predecessor. The bad faith of such a contest was plain from the fact that nobody used to question a Commissioner's right to order all pensioners of doubtful status before examiners once in two years, to see whether their disabilities continued, and this practice was dropped only after the roll had grown so large as to make it impracticable. The Circuit Court for the District of Columbia, on application for a mandamus for Long's restoration, decided that Lochren had acted clearly within his right. An appeal was taken to the Supreme Court of the United States; but Lochren went out of office before it could be reached, and, as the mandamus was to be directed to him personally, the case was dismissed. It is liable to be revived at any time, however, by a move upon the present Commissioner.

Of course, Tanner's reason for choosing this particular case as a subject for his test was the political and social prominence of Judge Long; for, at the first blush, the sympathies of the public would be likely to go out to a man of his high standing. Yet, studied critically, from the points of view both of common sense and of sentiment, no case could be more unhappily chosen as illustrative of the working of our pension system. It is true that Judge Long had been a good soldier; but, on the other hand, the war had made him. He went into the army a country lad, with no career open before him. When he came back a cripple, he was an object of special interest to all his old neighbors. His incapacity for active work of the sort most of them were doing led

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him to prepare for the bar. His army record was a distinct aid in bringing him both clients and political preferment. If, therefore, our pension system were in practice what it is in theory, Judge Long, with his enviable rise in life and his assured private income, would have received only a modest pension if any, and the surplus would have gone to help some less fortunate comrade out of the depths.

It would be hopeless now to attempt to change our pension legislation for the better, beyond correcting a few glaring incongruities. All the plans for codification during the last two Congresses have stopped short at that point. The question resolves itself into keeping men of conscience and force in charge of the system, and uniting honest citizens everywhere for their support when they try to do right in the face of heavy pressure. Either a Lochren or an Evans, when they come to the front, must be loyally sustained, or we must throw open the vaults of the Treasury to an army of claim agents under the lead of Tanner and Dudley, and the shade of the departed Lemon.

A SAMPLE OF CROKER RULE.

We commend to the attention of all persons who are inclined to the belief that Tammany rule is not so bad as many people declare it to be, the revelations concerning Mr. Croker's treatment of our Health Department and its vital statistics. No better example of the great man's ideas as to the proper uses to be made of a ruler's powers has ever been presented to the public attention. The evolution of events which led up to the final step was very simple and natural. Mr. Croker discovered, after he came into full possession of the city government in January, 1898, that he needed a headquarters of some kind suitable to his state. He decided upon a club as the most appropriate form, and began to look about for a building. Finding an empty club-house in Sixth Avenue, he purchased that without paying much attention to either the price or the location. He forgot for the moment that the new style of living which his prosperity had enabled him to adopt could not find suitable field for display in Sixth Avenue. Even the Tammany Boys who had either bought or hired the court dress which the boss insisted upon, saw the incongruity of wearing it in such a plebeian locality.

No sooner was the mistake discovered than it was rectified. Mr. Croker found a suitable house for his club in Fifth Avenue, and had it enlarged and refitted with appropriate luxury and elegance. This left him with the Sixth Avenue house on his hands, but it was soon announced that he had found a purchaser. Shortly afterwards it was announced that the city authorities had taken a lease of this building for a term of ten years, and that the Health Board was to be moved into it from its quarters in the new Criminal Court Building. The members of the Board protested on various grounds, including that of inconvenience to the public, but their protests were unheeded. Go they must and did, for the boss decreed it, and the city government, with the Mayor in the lead, enforced the decree. What had public or official convenience to do with it, anyway? If Mr. Croker could sell his club-house by promising its purchaser that he should have the city for a tenant, at a handsome rental, was not that reason enough for the change? It seems a hopeless task to endeavor to make some people comprehend the nature of the government under which we live, notwithstanding the fact that Mr. Croker himself has said in the plainest manner several times that the primary objects of the government are his pleasure and pecuniary profit.

Having moved the Board of Health up town, with President Mike Murphy at its head, it became necessary to remove all the records of the department with it. The President himself went with the greatest reluctance, and, after arriving there, he found himself so annoyed by the proximity of the elevated railway that he instigated at once a plan for its removal, on the ground, his enemies said, that microbes were at work upon its foundations. He was so much absorbed in this work that he seems to have paid no attention to a far more serious injury to the city and thousands of its inhabitants which was being perpetrated under his official notice—that is, the removal of all the records of marriages, births, and deaths from a fireproof building to a veritable firetrap. If he made any protest against this step, or if he realized that it called for a protest, the public had no knowledge of his action.

The removal of these records was anything but a subject for merriment. Nothing more criminal in the way of wilful official negligence has ever been done, even under Tammany government. It is impossible to conceive how an intelligent official could sanction such a step. To all foreign-born citizens and their descendants in this country, the preservation of these records is of the greatest importance. No son or daughter of such parents, born in this country, could gain possession of an inheritance or a legacy in a foreign country without producing a certified official transcript of the record of marriage and birth. This fact alone is sufficiently momentous to lead to loud protest against the present dangerous location of the records. To native American citizens the consequences of destruction are scarcely less serious. No American child can be admitted to schools in Germany, France, or Italy without a certificate of the parents' marriage and the child's birth, and no American can be married in some European countries without a similar certificate. Then, too, the heirs of an estate cannot get money out of banks without transcripts from the official records of deaths.

Not one of these invaluable records would be saved if a fire were to break out in the building in which they are now placed. In one hour every official trace of every birth and every marriage which has occurred in this city for nearly half a century would be wiped out, and of every death for a full century. All these records are of inestimable value in a thousand ways. They are duplicated nowhere, for parish records are not kept in this country, as they are in Europe. Churches are demolished and their records are untraceable, but even if they were preserved they would not be complete. To take a single chance of the destruction of such invaluable data is an official blunder which amounts to a crime, and this is so obvious that one would suppose that even this Croker-ridden community would rise in protest. Read the description given of the "vault" in which some of these precious documents are stored, and then reflect upon the intelligence of the extraordinary horde that is ruling over us. Read the accounts, also, of the structural qualities of the building, and then reflect upon the intelligence and character of our extraordinary Mayor, who fights so furiously for a City Prison Building erected under the expert Tammany guidance of Horgan & Slattery, and who will trust no other architects than those professional bankrupts with the construction of city buildings. Where was his zeal for safe public buildings when he insisted upon this Health Board removal?

PREPARATORY INSTRUCTION IN HISTORY.

Mainly under the influence of the colleges and universities, whose interest in admission requirements followed logically upon the growth of the elective system, the work of the preparatory schools has held nearly, if not quite, the first place in the educational controversies of the last decade. First, awakened zeal for physical science forced a battle with the classics, and compelled the latter to modify—though much to their ultimate advantage, as the event proved—their extreme claims to educational value. Then came the modern languages, insisting upon their claims—literary, philological, and practical—to a distinct place in any well-framed scheme of secondary instruction. The work in mathematics has been overhauled, and the traditional order of subjects turned inside out. And now, latest of all, comes history, whose pedagogical claims receive, in the recently published report of the Committee of Seven of the American Historical Association (Macmillan), detailed examination.

The high standing of the committee, and the weight that will naturally be attached to their opinions, make it worth while to summarize, though as briefly as possible,

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their conclusions and recommendations. As a thorough and systematic scheme of study, the Committee recommend a four years' course, beginning with ancient history and ending with American history. The four "blocks," or annual periods, are:

"(1.) Ancient History, with special reference to Greek and Roman history, but including also a short introductory study of the more ancient nations. This period should also embrace the early Middle Ages, and should close with the establishment of the Holy Roman Empire (800), or with the death of Charlemagne (814), or with the treaty of Verdun (843).

"(2.) Mediæval and Modern European History, from the close of the first period to the present time.

"(3.) English History.

"(4.) American History and Civil Government."

Anything less than the full four years' work will, in the judgment of the committee, be inadequate. When, however, less than four years must suffice, the committee think it better, on the whole, to omit one of the "blocks" altogether, rather than to attempt a compression of the whole scheme; although they think some such combination as that of English and American history may be practicable. No "short course" in "general history" is recommended, for the reason that such a course must deal either with the dry bones of the subject, or else with broad generalizations too dangerous for immature minds.

In regard to methods of teaching, the committee favor the use of text-books, as pretty certain to give a better presentation of the subject than the average teacher is likely to originate; but they urge the free use, in all grades, of collateral printed material. There is a favorable word for note-books and maps, and an earnest plea for adequate school libraries. The so-called "source method," however, "in which pupils have in their hands little more than a series of extracts, for the most part brief, and not very closely related," is distinctly disapproved. Finally, in the matter of college entrance requirements, the committee, bearing in mind the different prescriptions and different forms of statement of different institutions, make the following recommendations — the "unit" meaning an historical course occupying five periods a week for one year, or three periods a week for two years:

"(1.) If a college or a scientific school has a system of complete options in college entrance requirements—that is, if it accepts a given number of years' work, or units, without prescribing specific subjects of study (as at Leland Stanford University) —we recommend that four units in history be accepted as an equivalent for a like amount of work in other subjects. Likewise, that one, two, or three units in history be accepted.

"(2.) If a college or a scientific school requires a list of certain prescribed subjects, and also demands additional subjects, to be chosen out of an optional list (as at Harvard University), we recommend that one unit of history be placed on the list of definitely prescribed subjects, and that one, two, or three units of history be placed among the optional studies.

"(3.) If a college or a scientific school has rigid requirements without options (as at Yale College and the Sheffield Scientific School), we recommend that at least one unit of history be required for entrance."

In the fourth class of institutions, of which the University of Michigan is a type, where distinct college courses, leading to different degrees, have corresponding sets of entrance requirements, the recommendations of the committee are, for the so-called classical and Latin courses, one unit of history, consisting of any one of the four "blocks" or periods previously mentioned; for the scientific course, two units, freely chosen; and for the English course, three and, if possible, four units, thus making history one of the central subjects in this course.

Such, in condensed form, are the recommendations of this long-awaited report. Their significance, obviously, does not lie in their novelty, either of form or of content. Nearly all the points touched upon have been the subject of frequent discussion in educational circles, in recent years, and their general bearings are not unfamiliar. What gives the report its especial importance is the fact that its conclusions embody the mature judgments of representative historical scholars and teachers, speaking for the American Historical Association, as to the amount and kind of history that should be taught to American youth. The doctrine of the report will not, of course, be accepted without question even by those best entitled to be heard in the matter; but the straightforwardness and restraint with which it is expressed will certainly go far to commend it.

The feature of the report least likely, we think, to meet with approval is the recommendation of mediæval and modern European history as one of the four "blocks" or periods. For a boy or girl, of average high-school age and powers, to get, in a single year, a helpful view of the history of Europe from A. D. 800 to date, seems a large undertaking; and even the committee have to admit that "it is necessarily . . . a matter of considerable difficulty to determine the best method by which the subject may be handled." They feel, indeed, the necessity of securing "unity and continuity," and suggest that this can be done either by treating broad general movements, or by centring attention mainly on the history of some one nation, preferably France; but their exposition of the possibilities in this direction is not very convincing. The order of events in time is not the necessary order of youthful apprehension of them. The scheme of the committee rather suggests that, having wisely concluded that the history of Europe ought not to be wholly neglected, they finally decided upon a cursory view of the whole of it; thereby virtually reproducing, in their second "block," the main characteristics of that "short course in general history" which they elsewhere condemn. With the utmost deference to the carefully considered views of the committee, we must still think that, for American secondary schools, the fruits of nine months' study of European history for a thousand years will not be that clear, balanced and understanding view of events which the committee hope for, but, rather, either a dry and lifeless store of names and dates, or else an uncertain notion of "movements" and "tendencies," chiefly distinguished as being essentially untrue.

The report suggests two reflections. The first is, that such a course of instruction as is here recommended is obviously impossible without specially trained teachers. On this point the language of the report is both clear and emphatic. The present situation is certainly lamentable. As a rule, history is still committed to the tender mercies of teachers whose strength lies in other directions. Until, then, the secondary schools are organized on the basis of specialization in the teaching staff, educational plans, such as are here outlined, must wait for adoption. The second reflection is a query whether there is time for all this work. The courses of study in our schools are packed and stuffed with a great variety of subjects, until one wonders how one small brain can be expected to grasp more than a round third of them; yet the days and hours somehow do not lengthen, and the capacity of the youthful mind to absorb knowledge changes little from year to year. We do not see how the average curriculum, *as at present made up*, can find place for such an historical course as is proposed by the Committee of Seven. Here, then, is the problem. The friends of Greek, and German, and physics, and history have studied the educational situation, and told us what they want. What we need now is a thorough-going expert study of the school curriculum as a whole, in the light of all these departmental programmes, to determine the extent to which the wealth of suggestion can be actually adopted. Such an inquiry, already partially undertaken, is not a task lightly to be attempted; but its appropriateness and necessity such reports as that of the Committee of Seven certainly do much to demonstrate.

A NEW ARCHÆOLOGICAL LAW FOR GREECE.

ATHENS, June, 1899.

There is a widespread conviction in Greece that she has outgrown the archæological law of 1834, under the operation of which her museums have been filled with priceless treasures of ancient art and history, and Athens has become one of the important centres in Europe for the study of art and archæology. It can scarcely admit of question that it was an eminently wise thing at the time to prohibit absolutely the exportation of antiquities. The spoliation of the Parthenon by Lord Elgin had taught Greece the sacredness of her monuments, and she could do no less, as a self-respecting nation, than to discountenance utterly all trafficking in the remnants of her ancient glory. But for such a law, she must have been despoiled long since of many of the unique remains which now adorn her museums and attract visitors from all parts of the world. It is doubtful if the foreign societies would have been content to expend so much money and labor in excavations in return for the right of publication alone. While the policy of dividing the spoils of excavation would certainly have stimulated popular interest in classical archæology in other lands, as is well illustrated in our own country by the flourishing condition of the societies which contribute to the Egyptian Exploration Fund, the interests of archæology at large would scarcely have been furthered by such a plan, and Greece would have been impoverished, as Egypt has been, in proportion as the rest of the world was enriched.

But the effective enforcement of this provision of the law has grown increasingly difficult. The demand for Greek antiquities has become so strong, and the prices in consequence so remunerative, that the business of smuggling such goods out of the country has reached enormous proportions. The Athenian

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dealers in antiquities have representatives in the principal capitals of Europe. They do business directly with the management of museums on both sides of the Atlantic, and openly claim to be able to fill orders for almost every variety of Greek antiques. This has long been known to the authorities at Athens, but they profess to be unable, under the present law, to check the traffic. I have heard responsible persons in Athens even express the belief that persons high in authority connive at it. However this may be, the business of collecting and exporting antiquities has become so extensive, and is so openly conducted, that ignorance or indifference on the part of the Government is no longer possible.

In May, soon after I reached Athens, the papers announced the arrest of a well-known forwarding agent on the charge of having shipped as "personal effects" a large consignment of antiquities to Berlin, fortunately intercepted there by an agent of the Government. At the same time, additional troops were being hurried to Tanagra and Eretria to put a stop to the extensive night operations which had long been in progress there, hundreds of graves having been opened within the past few months. A few weeks later, when visiting the Austrian excavations on the site of Lusoi in northwestern Arcadia, I found an admirable illustration of the facility and security with which this underground business is carried on. The directors of the excavations had been greatly disappointed in having found so few objects in bronze and terracotta, which they knew had once been very plentiful on this site. Searching for an explanation of this phenomenon, they learned that, the year before, a considerable force of men from the neighboring village of Soudena had dug over the whole site under the safe direction of one of the gendarmes stationed there! Many a peasant's cottage in the neighborhood had a better collection of bronzes than the authorized explorers! This is the state of affairs pretty much all over Greece. The Athenian dealers have stimulated surreptitious digging everywhere, and valuable objects which should be in the museums are daily taken out by travellers or exported for sale.

On the ninth of the present month (Old Style), the Minister of Education, M. Eutaxias, laid before the Boulé a series of measures designed to put a stop to "this scandal, which has confounded all Greece," to use the phrase of the speaker, and at the same time to put all the archæological interests of the kingdom on a better footing. In the preparation of the following account, I have depended upon the reports of the sitting given by the Athenian press, and on a sketch of the proposed measures which appeared in the *Neologos* of May 27 (O. S.). The *Neologos* states that M. Eutaxias was assisted in drawing up these bills by M. Kabbadias, the well-known Ephor-General of Antiquities, and by M. Byzantinos.

M. Eutaxias explained, in his introductory remarks, that the defect in the old law to which the growth of the illicit trade in antiquities may chiefly be attributed, next to the practical difficulty of preventing exportation, is its recognition of the common ownership by the State and by the property-holder of all antique objects found in Greece. The proposed law, on the contrary, declares that all objects of antiquity are exclusively the property of the State. It recognizes, however, the claim of property-holders to some compensation for objects found on their land, in providing that they shall receive one-half of the value of such objects, this value to be determined by a committee of three, on which both interests are represented. This compensation is forfeited if the property-holder fails to give notice to the Ephor-General within five days of the discovery, and the delinquent is liable also to fine or imprisonment. The amount forfeited is to be paid to the one who gives information of such failure to comply with the law. The committee of appraisal may declare objects to be undesirable for the museums, in which case the objects remain in the hands of the property-holder, and may be disposed of at will. Any one who is found in possession of antique objects must show that he is lawfully possessed of them; otherwise he is liable to a heavy fine or imprisonment, and the objects are confiscated.

Antiquities from other countries are allowed free entry into the kingdom, notice thereof being given to the proper officials. Such objects may not, however, be sold or otherwise disposed of without permission from the Minister of Education. If they are exported from the country, a tax of 20 per cent. ad valorem must be paid to the State. Objects found in Greece which have been declared "unsuitable for the museums" may be exported. Exportation of all other classes of objects is absolutely forbidden. Those found guilty of illicit exportation are to be imprisoned for not less than three months or more than five years. The manufacture and sale of imitations of antique objects are also forbidden.

Under the old law, antiquities found on private property might be acquired by the State on payment of one-half of the appraised value. The proposed law, therefore, differs from the old, in this point, only as regards the technical matter of ownership, and, it must be acknowledged, does not seem to be very consistent with itself. But it is believed that it will prove more effective than the old law, by reason of the heavy penalties fixed for failure to announce promptly the discovery of ancient remains, coupled with the reward offered to informers, as well as by the prohibition of unauthorized digging. Besides, the people will soon learn that their one-half share, fairly appraised, would amount to more than they might expect to receive from the dealers, who obtain their wares at ridiculously low prices. But, even so, many articles would doubtless find their way into the hands of the dealers. The peasants are very secretive about their hoards of *ἀρχαῖα πράγματα*, and the business of informing against one's neighbors is always disagreeable. The Government must depend, after all, upon a more efficient and honest administration of its laws. This is provided for, except in the matter of honesty, by another bill, to which I shall refer later on. It is also possible that private collectors and the buyers for museums would prefer to obtain their Greek antiquities legally, when once the exportation of a certain class of objects is allowed. There can be little doubt that it is the intention of the framers of the bill to give a liberal interpretation to the phrase *ἄχρηστα διὰ τὰ μουσεῖα*. Objects that would add nothing to the collections of Greece would be eagerly sought for by museums in other countries.

Not less important for the interests of archæology are the further provisions of this bill with reference to the right of excavation on private property. Every society which has conducted excavations here has encountered enormous difficulties in acquiring the right to dig. Exorbitant sums are demanded for the right to excavate on ground that is almost worthless, and often the land must be bought outright at high values, even though it is well understood that the former owner will resume possession after the excavations are concluded. The Greek Archæological Society is at present unable to continue the extensive and important excavation of the north slope of the Acropolis of Athens, because the owners of the huts there demand Wall Street prices for their miserable holdings, and this in spite of the desperate attempt of the Society to reduce their demands by the circulation of a report that the walls of the Acropolis are about to fall! This situation is met in the bill by giving the Ministry of Education the right to conduct excavations on any private property by condemnation. The property-holder's usual share in the value of objects found is forfeited if he offers opposition. At the same time no one may dig for antiquities, even on his own land, except by the consent of the Ministry and under the direction of one of its archæological officials. For violation of this article the punishment is to be imprisonment for from six months to three years.

A second bill proposes the organization of a graded archæological service under the Ministry of Education. The number of Ephors is to be increased and better salaries paid them. Each Eparchy of the kingdom is to have a Superintendent, and a large number of guards is to be appointed for the care of the museums. The Ephors and Superintendents are to be trained archæologists. Guards are to be selected by examination, but soldiers wounded in the late war may be appointed without examination—an exception of especial interest to us Americans. To meet the increased expenses entailed by these reforms without burdening the budget, a separate branch of the Treasury is to be established, whose revenues are to be derived from (1) the lottery, (2) admission fees to the museums, and (3) the sale of casts. The Archæological Society, relieved of the management of the lottery, will devote itself to exploration and research, supported by a subvention of 70,000 drachmæ per annum. The Numismatic Museum will receive 10,000 drachmæ yearly, and the Christian Archæological Society a like sum. It is believed that the fees of admission to the museums will amply cover the increased expenses. Although one cannot but regret that Greece should recede from the unique position which she has hitherto held, all of her museums being now absolutely free to the public, yet, in view of the heavy cost of maintaining all her monuments and collections, the pressing need of arranging and cataloguing, and the demands of future excavations, the wisdom and even the necessity of this step will be acknowledged. Free admission will be given to professional archæologists, teachers, and students.

M. Eutaxias also presented a bill for the establishment of a Practical School of Archæology, the details of which have not yet been announced, and at the same time intimated that the Archæological Department of the University is to be reorgan-

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ized and enlarged. It is clear that he is determined to effect, if possible, much-needed reforms and improvements in every branch of the archæological work of Greece. In this effort he seems to have the support of the leading archæologists of the country. Greece has already, by her enlightened policy and the recognized ability of her scientific men, contributed largely to the building up of the science of archæology. If the proposed measures are passed by the Boulé, we may confidently expect from her still greater services in the future.

EDWARD CAPPS.

THE ISLE OF MAN.

DUBLIN, July 15, 1899.

There are many anachronisms in the constitution of the British Empire. Among the most striking are some near the centre—the political status of the Channel Islands and of the Isle of Man. Both are unrepresented in Parliament, and have Home-Rule institutions and laws of their own. The Channel Islands are all that remain to England of her French possessions. It is indeed their boast that they do not belong to England, but that England belongs to them; that they are a portion of the Normandy whence issued the race that conquered her. Speaking French, and within but twelve miles of France, while they are sixty from England, they are enthusiastically loyal to the British crown, and were, through the French Revolution and the Napoleonic wars, never shaken in their fealty. Their area is about that of Greater New York, and they support a population of 90,000.

It is, however, of the Isle of Man, whence I have just returned, that I now mean to write. It is smaller than the smallest Irish county (still thrice the extent of the Channel Islands), and has a resident population of 55,000. It is situated midway between England, Ireland, Scotland, and Wales, which countries are visible from its heights on a clear day. It consists of heath-covered mountains in the centre, rising to 2,000 feet, from which valleys and pretty wooded glens, and undulating pastures tend down to the sea—except at its northern extremity: there is a level tract, probably gradual accretion thrown up by the fierce tides of the north Irish Channel. The occasional discovery of remains of the Irish elk, with the absence of toads and snakes, leads to the supposition that the island remained connected with Ireland long after its severance from Great Britain.

In early times it was an appanage of the Kings of Wales. Then came three centuries of Norse rule. During a century and a half England and Scotland contended for its mastery. Except for a short period during the Commonwealth, the Stanley and Athol families held it as their private possession for over four centuries. Only so late as 1829 did it come fully under the British dominion. The Dukes of Athol, whose ancestors were granted the island in return for a "cast" of hawks, presented upon each recurring coronation at Westminster, received back in all £500,000 in quittance of the family claims. The island's peculiar armorial bearings, practically the same as those of Sicily, may have been brought by Crusaders. The island was peopled mainly from Ireland. Kelly is the prevailing surname. In the "Callisters," "Cannells," "Kermodes," "Faraghers," Irish originals are recognizable, while "Christian" and many similar names show traces of Norse dominion. Most of the ruined churches are called after Irish saints; yet the island accepted the Reformation. The small proportion of churches continuously in use suggests that religion was probably at a low ebb from the Reformation to Wesley's evangelical revival. If statistics privately furnished me are reliable, sexual morality stands as high as in Ireland. The Manx language, now spoken only by elderly people in remote districts, is essentially the same as Irish. The Irish settlers did not, however, carry Irish letters with them. When writing became necessary, they used the English alphabet. The letters j, k, v, y, absent in Irish, are strikingly prominent in Manx. The inhabitants neglect the use of dotted letters, and, in following syntactical changes in the beginnings of words, alter the spelling in accordance with the pronunciation, so that the relationship of words is not so easily traced as in Irish. Manx music does not appear to be as rich as that of neighboring Gaelic peoples. Some of it is strikingly Irish in character.

The agricultural prosperity of this little country rests largely upon a revolution effected in land tenure in 1703, by which *leaseholders were turned into perpetual* tenants at low quit-rents. Till that period, the unearned increment of improvement was confiscated by the lords of the island. Since then it has been the property of the tenant. The quit-rent was in 1703 fixed at £1,500. The present valuation is £100,000 per annum. The principle of "betterment," the application of which is so ardently desired by reformers in other parts of the empire, is there accepted. Where improvements are made at the public charge, a tax is laid on contiguous property benefited.

Smuggling was once the best trade of the island. With but slight import duties, it became a station whence dutiable goods could be easily transmitted to Great Britain and Ireland; and with low taxation, and consequent cheap living, added to freedom from arrest for debt on British warrants, the island was even till recently the Boulogne of the Three Kingdoms. All this is now changed. Free transit, without customs delays or difficulties, has become indispensable to the prosperity of the place. Excise and customs duties have therefore been brought almost up to the British level. Abolition of imprisonment for debt in the United Kingdom has rendered such an asylum unnecessary. (I believe such imprisonment is still resorted to in the island itself.) Living is still, however, cheaper than in the neighboring kingdoms. There is no income-tax, or death duties, and but slight stamp duties. After smuggling, came fishing as the staple industry. In the church service of the island, following the prayer for the "kindly fruits of the earth" is one for the harvest of the sea. Manx fishermen are noted for their fine qualities: their boats are fit to sail anywhere. Latterly, fishing has not been as profitable as formerly.

The "tripper" or tourist industry, is now the great staple. As the north of England operatives and factory hands have improved their circumstances and become more intelligent, their ideas have expanded, and they have begun to find better use for their savings than in drink, and better occupation for their many holidays than in lounging round public-houses and indulging in vicious amusements. The Isle of Man is their great playground. Lines of steamers, some carrying 1,500 passengers, ply from Liverpool and other ports to the island. Some 350,000 souls arrive in the course of the year. At Douglas, the principal port, it is said that three passengers land for every two that land at Dover. There is hotel and lodging-house accommodation for as many more persons as the normal population. This influx has almost doubled within the past ten years. Building is proceeding on all hands. Property has increased immensely in value. Every material interest benefits. Douglas has now magnificent piers and landing-stages, a crescent sea-wall and promenade stretching two miles, backed by terraces of ornamentally built, four-storied lodging-houses and hotels. It certainly does not add to the dignity of a country that it should become to such a degree a playground, nor can it be to ultimate advantage that the hotel and lodging-house interest should be so predominant.

The thousands of visitors lounge and bathe, listen to music, make driving and railroad excursions, and in the evening disport themselves on the esplanades, at variety entertainments and dancing "palaces." There are too many licensed bars; but during my few days' visit I saw no signs of intemperance, and was favorably impressed with the prevalent order and good conduct. From the gallery of one of the prettily decorated, spacious, brilliantly lit dancing halls, I looked down at the crowds of decorous young people enjoying themselves. The master of ceremonies told me he sometimes had as many as 5,000 waltzers on the floor at once; and that on Sundays, when semi-sacred concerts are given, there are 10,000 present. Dancing ceases at eleven o'clock. At a variety entertainment proceeding in an adjacent hall, there was little that could be called vulgar. What most struck me was the vociferous applause with which was received the intertwining of the Stars and Stripes and the Union Jack as "Yankee Doodle" and "The British Grenadiers" were played. Trips to Man are among the many influences tending to elevate the manufacturing population of the north of England. The specimens I saw there of this class contrasted most favorably with their progenitors as I remember them fifty years ago—then but emerging from a state of semi-civilization.

These visitors congregate principally about Douglas; they constitute one of the interests of the place, and do not mar the picturesqueness of the island. A fine coast surrounds much lovely scenery—bosky dells and rushing streams. It is easy to lose one's self on roads bordered with wild roses and honeysuckle and amidst shady "boreens." The view from the mountains will repay ascent. An electric railway has been constructed up Snaefell, the highest. At villages on the west coast the sea breezes are fresh and invigorating, and quiet lodgings may be found. Any one who has read 'Peveril of the Peak' will explore Rushin Castle and the romantic remains on Peel Holm. Rushin was the only place where I saw one of the tailless cats (a species more curious than beautiful) peculiar to the island. She was a friendly creature, which accompanied me through the ancient pile,

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and peered over the highest battlements as if she had a certain proprietorship in the underlying old capital of Castletown. The novels of Hall Caine will attract some to Man. I caught sight of him at the Tynwald, more strikingly like his portraits than many other celebrities.

The institutions of the island, however, interested me most. I went over specially to attend the annual meeting of the Tynwald or Parliament. The island is ruled by a governor (the representative of the sovereign), by a council of eight, consisting of the Bishop, Deemsters or judges, and others appointed by the crown, and the House of Keys,* consisting of twenty-four representatives elected upon a franchise more restricted than that prevailing in the "neighboring islands." Spinsters and widows have votes. The assent of both chambers is necessary for the passage of laws. They are then sent to the Queen (really the Government of the day) for approval. Occasionally modifications are suggested. There is no modern instance of veto. The power of the House of Keys tends to become dominant. After receiving the Queen's signature, laws before being operative must be proclaimed in English and Manx from the Tynwald mount. I can recall no more curious survival of old customs, one which we generally think of only as in use amongst our northern ancestors a thousand years ago.

The Estates of Man pay £10 per annum to the Imperial Government, as their share of imperial charges. The rest of the taxes and imposts levied on or in the island are applied to internal purposes. Ireland pays nearly twice as much in proportion to her population, besides having to support costly establishments imposed upon her. The most patent benefit the Isle of Man enjoys from its home rule is the facility and cheapness with which railway and other private bills can be considered and passed. Church and state are there closely joined. Non-conformity does not take an aggressive form, and tithe is freely paid. As often in Protestant countries, the chief religious difficulties are with Catholic sentiment. A new cemetery has just been opened. It is the general determination that the whole should be free to all, each sect consecrating the ground as desired. The Catholics, however, are dissatisfied without a certain portion exclusively set apart for themselves.

The 5th of July, Tynwald Day, is kept as a general holiday. It was glorious weather, and thousands in their best poured out by rail and road to St. Johns, situated upon a central eminence commanding extensive and beautiful views. A tent was erected over the old mound. A gravel path, strewn, according to immemorial usage, with rushes, led about two hundred yards to the Church of St. John. The surrounding green was gay with booths, at which cakes and the usual fairing trifles were sold. Volunteers, with their band, naval reserve men with their flags, gave additional life to the scene. The church, a modern cruciform structure, is seated for two or three hundred. The privileged, of whom I was one, were admitted by ticket. The Council took their seats at a red-cloth-covered table in front of the Communion rails. The "Keys" were accommodated at oak tables farther down. The Governor, Bishop, and other officials entered in state, the choir singing "God Save the Queen." Through the general harmony, peace, and order I could not but feel how materially happy it is for a people when their religious convictions fall in with those of the government supreme over them. Morning service proceeded, little different from that used by the churches in England and Ireland, except that "The Legislature of this Isle" was prayed for instead of "The High Court of Parliament under our most religious and gracious Queen at this time assembled." A procession was then formed, and over the path kept by volunteers and the navy men we proceeded to the mount. It accommodated but a limited number; the rest collected round within a roped barrier, such as in a less orderly land would have quickly been invaded by the surrounding thousands. After a few quaint swearing-in ceremonies, we returned to the church, the Governor and the Legislature resumed their places, and business proceeded on a small scale as at Westminster. We now learned why the six acts named on the agenda had not been proclaimed: the Governor had not received them back from London! Accounts and reports were laid on the table, questions were asked and answered, motions made, and taxes were authorized. The whole proceedings were interesting. The ordinary meetings of the Estates of the island are held in the Government buildings in Douglas. In next appearing newspapers the maledictions on the Governor for the delay of the acts were loud and deep. This was the second time during his régime that such a disappointment had occurred. A special meeting of the Tynwald would have to be held for their promulgation.

I may as well draw these notes on the Isle of Man to a conclusion with an extract from the latest and best book on the history and constitution of the island, by Spencer Walpole, a recent Governor:

"This [the island's] virtual independence may be denounced as an anomaly and an anachronism; constitutional writers may succeed in demonstrating that dependent legislatures are likely either to become inconvenient or to break down; but anomalies and anachronisms, when they are attended with no evil consequences, have a tendency to survive; and autonomous institutions, at any rate in the Isle of Man, may display an increasing capacity for work."

A visit to the island, especially at Tynwald time, would amply repay any one interested in peculiar and ancient institutions, and prepared to enjoy lovely, though by no means sublime scenery. D. C. B.

* The name is perhaps significant of their power or authority.

Correspondence.

CYRANO DE BERGERAC'S TRANSLATORS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The preface to Lovell's translation (1687) of Cyrano de Bergerac's 'Voyage to the Moon' begins with these words: "It is now Seven and Twenty Years since the Moon appeared first Historically on the English Horizon." In the 1899 reprint of this translation, the editor, Dr. Curtis Hidden Page, remarks in a note: "This evidently refers to an earlier translation. The present editor will be greatly obliged to any one who will put him on the track of a copy of this or any other early translation from Cyrano." Dr. Page knows Derrick's translation (1754). In the British Museum Library I have recently examined all three translations, and take pleasure in giving some particulars concerning the earliest. Its title-page reads as follows:

ΣΕΛΗΝΑΡΧΙΑ. Or, The Government of the World in the Moon: a Comical History. Written by that Famous Wit and Cavaleer of *France*, Monsieur *Cyrano Bergerac*. And Done into English by Tho. St Serf, Gent. London, Printed by J. *Cottrel*, and are to be sold by *Hum. Robinson* at the three Pigeons in *Pauls* Churchyard 1659. [There are about two hundred pages, unnumbered.]

This is twenty-seven years earlier than Lovell, and is evidently the translation that he refers to. Moreover, a comparison reveals that he was largely indebted to his predecessor. In many passages the wording in the two translations is very similar, Lovell having merely corrected mistakes and sometimes simplified the style. A few examples will show this:

(a) *St. Serf:* The explication of the other two Motions, are less knotty: for pray consider a little:—At these words the *Viceroy* interrupted me. I had rather dispense with you for that trouble (for I have read some Books of *Gassendi* upon that Subject).

Lovell: The Explication of the other Motions is less perplexed still; for pray, consider a little—At these words the Vice-Roy interrupted me: I had rather, said he, you would excuse your self from that trouble; for I have read some Books of Gassendus on that subject.

(b) *St. Serf:* I approacht him, feigning to perceive some motion, and protesting to the assistants that he was not yet dead.

Lovell: I drew near him, pretending to find motion in him still, and protesting to those who were present, that he was not dead.

(c) *St. Serf:* The morning beams had not wakened me, before they propitiously had lighted my guide to my chamber.

Lovell: Next Morning by Sun-rising my Spirit came into my room.

(d) *St. Serf:* The Damned . . . crawl up against the vault, and so turn the Earth, as a turn-spit Dog doth when he is shut up in a wheel.

Lovell: The damned . . . scramble up to the Vault, and so make the Earth to turn, as a Turn-spit makes the Wheel go round when he runs about in it.

(e) *St. Serf: Charon* makes use of no other candles.

Lovell: Being the only Candles *Charon* uses.

This last is, as Dr. Page shows on p. 97, a misunderstanding of the French *Car on ne se sert*, etc.

Part of St. Serf's interesting "Epistle Dedicatory" reads as follows:

"To the Right Honorable, the Lord George Douglas, and Lieutenant-General Andrew Rutherford, and to all the Noble Officers in those two Renowned Regiments of Scots, the service of the most Christian King of France. . . . As for my self and Book (I call it mine, though I be but its Translator) I made particular choice of this, as well for the subject-Matter, as for the Author. I see the world so shuffled here below, that I thought it safest to present the Government of a World above, drawn by the hand of Monsieur *Bergerac*, who was not only of your Profession, but also of your *Army*."

The British Museum also contains the 'Satyrical Characters and handsome Descriptions in Letters. . . . Translated out of the French by a Person of Honour. London, 1658.' This book contains thirty-eight "satyrical letters," and eight "amorous"; pp. 174. Dr. Page has quoted the title with substantial but not with absolute accuracy (p. 1). One of Cyrano's letters ("D'un Songe") was the basis of a pamphlet with this title: 'The Agreement; A Satyrical and Facetious Dream. To which

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is annexed The Truth. . . . Printed in the Year, 1756.' The preface contains the following:

"It may be thought strange, that I know not whether to call this ensuing Dream my own Performance, or a Translation: In the general Scheme; and in many Particulars, I have followed the Guidance of Cyrano de Bergerac, a French Writer. I have taken care to avoid a servile copying him."

I trust that these notes will be of interest, and perhaps of value. The earliest translation of the 'Voyage to the Moon' is certainly little known. Morley, for instance ('Clement Marot, and Other Studies,' ii., p. 163) speaks of Lovell's translation as the earliest. KENNETH MCKENZIE.

LONDON, July 18, 1899.

AN AMERICAN TRANSLATION OF VONDEL'S LUCIFER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Ignorant of Mr. Noppen's enterprise (noticed in your issue of July 20), another lover of all that's Dutch made a translation of Vondel's 'Lucifer' in August and September of 1897, save part of Act I., which had been done in January. The manuscript was submitted to a small publishing-house in Boston, and was rejected on the ground of lack of interest. (This firm later forwarded to the translator a prospectus of Mr. Van Noppen's work.)

The fact, however, that this work, never attempted before, should now be done twice at the same moment, would seem to indicate a "revival of learning" in that direction. It would certainly be a benefit, for, notwithstanding a certain radical tastelessness at times, corresponding to that found by critics in the art of Vondel's countrymen, there is in Dutch literature a world of strength, truth, and color not found elsewhere. Even Dumas fails in this field. Compare his 'Tulipe Noire,' the feeble exotic, with the tales of Van Lennep, the Dutch Walter Scott. Just so, a Frenchman cannot paint Holland. He carries his French greens there.

This translator, anxious to render just what there was in 'Lucifer,' felt amply equipped in the fact of never having read 'Paradise Lost,' and speedily recognized the only sentiment therein known to her in Lucifer's

"En liever d'eerste Vorst in eenigh laeger hof,
Dan in't gezalight licht de tweede of noch ein minder;"

literally:

And rather the first Prince in some lower court
Than in the blessed light the second or still less,

rendered:

And rather foremost Prince in some domain that's lower,
Than in the blessed light to wield the second power.

The translation was begun in the metre of the original (a thirteen-syllable couplet alternating with one of twelve), and this was fairly well preserved until the work was dropped in January. When it was resumed in August, the vein had failed or "the charm of the female rhyme" had palled. The long couplet could not be sustained without padding, and consequent loss of the directness and simplicity which mark the original. Hence it was dropped except when a thirteener came our way. This may not be poetry, but the writer does not claim to be a poet, and hence *would* claim some indulgence for presenting in the conflict not always rhymes, but "the nearest we have," as they say in the shops. Enough of Vondel's metre is preserved, it is hoped, to give some idea of the sonorous original, and the songs are exact. That at the end of Act. I. has the movement and change of a great bell:

Thou wert, Thou art the Never-Ending.
Thou changest not. All angels' song
Of praises faint, uncomprehending,
Can do Thy majesty but wrong.

It seems the song of "La Triomphe," the mellow-throated monster of Bruges.

H. M.

GLOUCESTER, MASS., July 28, 1899.

Notes.

The "Yale Studies in English," edited by Prof. Albert S. Cook, and heretofore published by Lamson, Wolffe & Co., have been taken over by Henry Holt & Co.

R. H. Russell will soon issue 'The Treasures of the Metropolitan Museum of Art,' with sixty half-tone illustrations, and text by Arthur Hoeber.

'The Temperance Problem and Social Reform,' by Joseph Rountree and Arthur Sherwell, will be published in this country immediately by Thomas Whittaker.

Josiah Flynt's 'Tramping with Tramps,' and 'Where Angels Fear to Tread,' nautical stories by Morgan Robertson, will be among the fall issues of the Century Co.

A primer on Dante, by E. Garratt Gardner, will form one of the Dent-Macmillan "Temple Primers" in preparation. The deservedly successful Temple Shakspere is to be reissued in a form suitable for the library rather than the pocket, and Mr. Gollancz will revise both text and notes, and add in the twelfth volume a Life of Shakspere. A new feature will be a gallery of Shaksperian contemporary portraits.

The Werner Co. of Akron, O., announces an 'Encyclopædia of Omens and Superstitions,' edited by Mrs. Cora Lynn Daniels.

Lemcke & Buechner send us the prospectus of a work issuing in parts by Th. Schröter at Leipzig and Zurich on the lower Rhine country—'Die Rheinlande von Mainz bis Koblenz: die Thäler der Lahn und der Nahe,' by Dr. M. Schwann. In this small folio the 150 illustrations in half-tone will form a leading attraction, to judge from the samples.

The new Year-Book of the Holland Society of New York is graced by portraits of our worthy Mayor and more worthy Governor, and of the young Queen of Holland. President Krüger figures in a letter. The speeches and addresses at the New York and Albany and some minor banquets are given at length. Of most permanent worth is the alphabetized record of burials in the Dutch Church, New York, filling upwards of seventy pages.

The documents contained in volumes xliii.-xlvi. of the "Jesuit Relations" (Cleveland: Burrows Brothers Co.), while consisting mainly of the annual reports and the diaries of the fathers at Quebec, present a good range of topics and embrace several interesting letters, which are taken from personal correspondence. Altogether they cover a term of five years, and belong to the period of transition from pioneer to colonial life. Exploration has already resulted in many great discoveries, as the Creuxius map of 1660 shows, but new routes are being constantly opened up. At the same time the coming of Bishop Laval in 1659 has a marked bearing on the purely colonial aspect of French contact with the St. Lawrence valley. Take, for instance, one case which runs through Laval's whole career in Canada—his opposition to the sale of spirits among the savages. Many churchmen before him had condemned this evil, but, during the first half-century from the founding of Quebec by Champlain, the fur-traders, who had no interest in the country as legitimate colonists, used in traffic whatever goods they chose, regardless alike of humanity and of the true welfare of the settlement. In other words, the "Jesuit Relations" have now reached a point where the routine occupations of the *habitants* are a noticeable feature in the narratives. Farms are perhaps not yet so much esteemed as beaver skins, but they are growing more valuable, and life is complex enough for questions of church *versus* state to arise. Over against Laval we shall presently have Frontenac. Several striking episodes in Jesuit annals and several illustrious deeds of valor may be found in the four volumes. Chief in the former class is the failure of the Onondaga mission, and, in the latter, Dollard's encounter with the Iroquois. But, for the fight at Long Sault, the Jesuit Relation of 1659-60 yields place to Dollier de Carson, upon whom both the Abbé Faillon and Parkman have drawn largely.

Eight years ago, Ernst Dückershoff, a German coal-miner, was, mainly on account of police surveillance because of his trades-union principles, induced to leave his own country and seek work in the north of England. He has since contributed his life experiences, and his estimate of the differences in the modes of life between German and English workingmen, to the Dresden *Volkswohl*. These have been translated, and are now published by King & Son of London, under the title, 'How the English Workman Lives.' It is an eminently readable and suggestive little book, and worth purchase by all interested in working-class life and problems. "His booklet displays the painstaking attention to detail no less characteristically Teutonic than the tendency to fault-finding." It gives a favorable impression of the condition and possibilities of the Northumbrian workman as compared with his Continental brethren, and of the good feeling and equality between different classes in the district where he has worked. The absence of police interference in the affairs of life especially impresses him. He evidently considers that the workmen's wives in England have an easier life of it than in Germany.

For those who are interested in the course of events in France we may mention three works that are suggestive. M. Jean Jaurès expounds, with eloquence and earnestness, the propaganda of the Radicals, under the title 'Action Socialiste' (Paris: Georges Bellais). Émile Faguet discusses 'Questions Politiques' (Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.), and Léon Poinsard reviews the political, fiscal, and social situation in a series of studies bearing the gloomy heading 'Vers la Ruine' (Paris: A. L. Charles). These writers address Frenchmen, but there are many resemblances between the United States and the French Republic. We are fond of dwelling on our English institutions, but the spirit of Democracy tends to modify them, and the changes now taking place are generally in the lines that the French have followed. Their example has more instruction for us than is commonly understood.

Under the title 'Les Chinois chez eux,'

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(Paris: Colin), M. E. Bard, ex-President of the municipal administration of the French "Concession" at Shanghai, has compiled and written an interesting account of the Chinese of to-day. His twenty-seven chapters, in three hundred and sixty pages, treat of the ordinary themes of standard interest. A dozen good half-tone pictures enliven the well-printed pages. It is curious to note that in this author's treatment of Chinese characteristics our own American writers, Chester Holcombe and Arthur Smith, are frequently quoted. There is little that is fresh in the chapters on social and religious life, but M. Bard's study of contemporaneous journalism, of money and finance, of industry, commerce, poverty, and socialism, shows the firm hand of one long familiar with the struggle for life in this over-populated empire. He is not frightened at the spectre raised by Kaiser Wilhelm: it will be long before China can industrially menace Europe. M. Bard believes, furthermore, that the yellow will conquer the brown, that the Japanese are precipitate, while the Chinese are long-headed and patient. In the end, the Chinese, though likely to be politically disintegrated, will be able to hold their own in the world's industrial competition. Interesting chapters, rich in late and carefully scrutinized statistics, deal with the question of "concessions," custom-houses, and foreign commerce. A useful abridgment of history and a somewhat one-sided chapter on Christian missions, or rather French Catholic missions, conclude a readable monograph packed with what is, for the most part, trustworthy information.

From the same Paris house we have a picture of the temperate zones in the third volume of the 'Album Géographique,' edited by MM. Dubois and Guy. The different countries are treated in sixteen chapters. A short sketch of their physical features, people, and characteristic industries and buildings, introduces some thirty reproductions of photographs illustrating these topics. Each picture, too, has a few descriptive lines, not always correct, since it is said of the Scotch Highlands that certain peaks are "couverts de neige et de glaciers." In the introduction to the chapter on this country (together with Canada) it is amusing to find it stated that the object of the war with Spain over Cuba was to compensate for our deficiency in tropical products such as tea, coffee, and sugar. The editors volunteer the further information that, "in spite of this beautiful appearance of two chambers and a President elected by popular suffrage, one seeks in vain for justice and equality in this republic of Anglo-Saxons, where positive interest rules everything, where the *club des millionaires* exploits the masses *sans défense*, and imposes its will on the government." It would be easy to criticise the selection of views in some instances (there is none of Niagara, for instance); but as a whole the volume is an interesting one, though the pictures, with a few exceptions, are not of much artistic value.

The "Monographs on Artists" published in Leipzig by Velhagen & Klasing (New York: Lemcke & Buechner) carry on the series of English translations with Knackfuss's Rembrandt, and the German with Eduard von Gebhardt, a strictly contemporary religious painter, born in 1838, a professor in the Düsseldorf Academy, and a technician of no slight merit. Numerous studies for his principal works are here reproduced, and are full of interest, in themselves, and for a sort of mediæval selectiveness. These may be instructively compared with similar studies for Munkacsy's religious paintings in the succeeding volume of the series, by F. Walther Ilges. The portraits of this Hungarian artist at various ages are very striking, while his portraits of well and less-known personages rival his more famous compositions in value. To the companion series of "Land und Leute Monographien" has just been added 'Norwegen,' by Sophus Ruge, which is beautifully illustrated with half-tones from grand landscapes An excellent folding map of Norway and Sweden accompanies the text.

The *Architectural Record* (New York) for July contains an interesting piece of information for those who have studied the question of curvature in classic Greek design. Mr. W. H. Goodyear, who has carried his researches further than any other student, and has demonstrated a great variety of curves even in mediæval construction, calls attention to the intentional convexity given by McKim, Mead & White, architects of the Columbia University Library, to the steps and platform by which this classical building is approached. "The curves are arcs of circles, that of the lower flight of steps having a rise of eight inches in the centre," and "were intended to counteract the apparent deflection in horizontal surfaces and lines of great extent" (here 327 feet). The unfinished colonnaded University Hall, by the same firm, will show a curve also in its entablature. Mr. Goodyear considers this the first modern experiment with horizontal curves on so large a scale. He wisely remarks, apropos of what Mr. Penrose calls the "dryness" of modern copies of Greek temples, that "no consideration of the distinctions between ancient and modern classic architecture is satisfactory which stops at the curves," and does not embrace irregular dimensions of all kinds, as, leaning verticals, deviations from the parallel, irregular intercolumniations, etc.

Albania and the Albanians are described appreciatively by the Rev. H. Callan in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for July. Though it is a "dangerous and dreadful" country to travel in on account of brigands, starving soldiers, and the prevalent internecine feuds—"one village or clan or one division of a town against another"—he went last year from Durazzo to Previza with no other weapon than a riding-switch, and often with no other guard than his native follower, also unarmed, without molestation. Albania is unquestionably in many respects the most interesting corner of Europe, from its wonderfully picturesque scenery and varied vegetation, and the primitive dress and customs of the people. They believe themselves, not without some show of reason, to be the descendants of the ancient Pelasgi, and are "physically and psychologically, both men and women, a credit, in point of health, strength, and beauty, to humanity." The Albanian is "fierce, reckless, revengeful, but truthful, faithful, virtuous, hospitable. He has the quickness of the Greek without his instability, the solidity of the Slav without his boorishness." Signs of dissatisfaction at their backward condition in comparison with the neighboring lands are not wanting. In one place a Mohammedan expressed a longing for national schools, of which there are none. A sketch of early exploration in northwest Canada, with special reference to the Yukon region, by Alex. Begg, closes with a statement of the Canadian boundary claim.

It is a sign of the times in which civilization has not abandoned her bad practice of getting "forrid" sometimes upon a powder-cart, that the United States Industrial Publishing Company of this city will soon issue the *Automobile*, "an illustrated monthly magazine devoted to the interests of horseless traction." The editors will be Sylvester Baxter and E. E. Schwarzkopf.

The opening, a few years ago, of the École des Beaux-Arts to women has resulted in the experience that coeducation is, for the time being, impracticable in Parisian art circles. The young men did not extend a decent welcome to the students of the other sex. From rudeness they passed to flirtation, or, as "a grumbler" expresses it in a recent number of *La France de Demain*, "the growls of wild animals were succeeded by sweet murmurs behind the canvases or at the foot of white statues." In consequence, it has been necessary to open special courses for young women, and of these the one in architecture was attended by only one student, and she a foreigner. Hence, complaints are being heard at the "scandalous" waste of money, and fault is found, not with the ill-behaved youths whose ungentlemanly conduct has brought about the present condition, but with the authorities who, from "ignorance" and "sentimentality," opened the portals of the École to women.

In a previous note on the noble efforts of Mme. Marie du Sacré-Cœur in behalf of a more modern and advanced education for Catholic girls in France, we referred to the lack of support accorded to her projects by the majority of French bishops. In spite of this obstacle, it is now reported, she intends to carry out her plan of founding a new educational institution, having received the Pope's paternal sanction and sovereign authorization during a recent visit to Rome. The aim of the institution in the new establishment will be to give to France women who, while penetrated with the Christian spirit, shall be capable of following the intellectual movement of the age, and thus able to exert an intelligent influence in their future homes and to direct as long as possible the education of their own children.

Miss Adelaide R. Hasse, of the Astor Library, has performed a valuable service in compiling her 'Reports of Explorations Printed in the Documents of the U. S. Government' (Washington: Government Printing Office). This "contribution towards a bibliography" is classified by explorer, subject, and locality, and fills some ninety pages.

Alexander Agassiz's monograph on the 'Islands and Coral Reefs of Fiji' constitutes volume 33 of the Bulletin of the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy at Harvard College. It embodies the results of a cruise in the *Yaralla* during the winter of 1897-98. A brief review of some of the literature of coral reefs and a discussion of the theories of their formation are followed by a detailed description of the islands, atolls, and barrier and fringing reefs composing the Fiji group. Mr. Agassiz's observations tend to confirm his belief that "there is no general theory of the formation of coral reefs, either of barrier

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reefs or atolls, applicable to all districts, and that each district must be examined by itself." He maintains that Darwin's theory that atolls and barrier reefs can be formed only on regions of subsidence fails to account for conditions met with in the Fijis. He is inclined to think that the corals of to-day had no part in shaping the circular or irregular atolls among the Fijis, or in building the substructure of the barrier reefs which encircle wholly or partially some of the islands. Their influence has probably been limited to the formation of fringing reefs; the recent corals upon the outer margin of the reefs constituting only a crust of moderate thickness upon the underlying base. This may be the edge of a submarine flat, or of an eroded elevated limestone, or of a substructure of volcanic rocks. The volume is illustrated by 120 plates, including more than 20 maps. The heliotypes are from photographs by Dr. W. McM. Woodworth and Mr. Max Agassiz, and are of great excellence.

Capt. C. H. Davis, U. S. N., Superintendent of the Naval Observatory at Washington, in anticipation of the coming total eclipse of the sun on May 28, 1900, has arranged with the Secretary of the Treasury to admit free of duty the instruments of foreign astronomers who may visit this country to observe the eclipse. All such are invited to notify Capt. Davis of the probable date of their arrival, with the name of the port at which they purpose disembarking. The Navy Department will then forward to the consuls of the different countries to which these observers belong, stationed at the United States ports where they are expected to arrive, letters stating the purpose of their expedition. Such papers, on being countersigned by the consul, will be presented to the Collector of the port, as proof of their identity; upon which he will extend all proper facilities for the speedy delivery of the instruments in question, free of duty and charges. The Superintendent further suggests that notice should be conveyed through the regular diplomatic channels to the local authorities of the city or town selected as a post of observation; and he will be glad to hear from each of the proposed expeditions, in order that he may render such assistance as lies in his power. All observers of eclipses in foreign lands who have suffered every species of vexatious detention in passing the customs with their delicate apparatus, will appreciate the complete arrangements made by the forethought of Capt. Davis.

—There are some interesting glimpses of Virginia contained in the volume on the manuscripts of the Duke of Buccleuch and Queensberry recently published by the English Historical Manuscripts Commission. They are to be found in the letters to Ralph Winwood, the diplomatic agent of England in France and Holland in the first part of the seventeenth century. In December, 1609, the Earl of Salisbury wrote of Sir Thomas Gates's intention to go to Virginia, and his wish to remain in the good graces of the States-General. "He is not retired from their service for any private occasions of his own, but for an enterprise of plantation in the Indies, where I am persuaded they [the States] would be glad the King of England and other Christian Princes might have a settling as well as the King of Spain." More than a year later Salisbury wrote again on the same subject: "Now, because it is conceived that the whole frame of the Plantation doth especially depend upon his personal assistance, being a man well experienced, and otherwise very capable to manage and direct such an enterprise, his Majesty, favoring the good success thereof, for Religion's sake, for his own honour, and for the benefit of his subjects," wished the States to grant a leave of absence of three years. Winwood was, in 1611, made a member of the Council of Virginia, and a very interesting paper from the Council was sent to him, urging the English officers in the Netherland ports to join the venture, which had received "many disastrous impediments by the factiousness and insufficiency of sundry the Governors and others in Virginia," but was now in good train through the endeavors of Lord Delaware. A lottery was set on foot to aid the plantation, but the details are not given. Apart from these American letters there is much of interest in the Winwood papers. The death of Overbury is described at length, and the straits of the founder of the Bodleian Library in his obtaining money to complete the foundation are suggestive.

—An ancient settlement in the southwest of the Barony of Corkaguiney, County of Kerry, Ireland, is the subject of a memoir by R. A. Stewart Macalister, published as part 7 of the current volume of Transactions of the Royal Irish Academy. It treats of an interesting and important group of remains lying along the seacoast between Ventry Harbor and Dunmore Head, near Dingley, which appear to have hitherto received less attention than they deserve. The "settlement" covers four townlands and verges upon three others, the ruins clustering thickly both upon the lower part of the mountain, which is cultivated, and in the wild moorland of the upper portion. They consist principally of "clochans," or dwellings of one or more chambers, built of stones that "oversail" from the first so as to approach until a space is left sufficiently narrow to be spanned by lintels, being in effect all roof. There are also "souterrains," or chambers "in the thickness of the wall," made by leaving out a sufficient number of stones to form a recess roofed in by a stone of proper length. Besides these are sculptured crosses, inscribed stones, ring-mounds, and other ruins. Although the structural remains are abundant, evidence bearing upon dates and other questions is meagre. No human remains have been discovered, but, from the appearance of the structures and from objects found in and among them, some particulars may be inferred as to the physical characteristics of the ancient inhabitants of the district and their mode of life. That they were small of stature is indicated by the fact that their souterrain chambers and clochans are never much more than five feet in height; while their great physical strength is shown by the weight of the stones used in their constructions. They kept sheep and goats, eating the flesh and spinning the wool for clothes. Shell-fish formed an important part of their diet, and they cultivated grain, grinding it in both hand and water mills. Their standard of comfort was low and luxury was unknown. An interesting question arises as to the origin of the two "duns" or fortified headlands at either end of the settlement, and their relations to the other buildings. Neither of them can be regarded as of any use in protecting the settlement, and Mr. Macalister believes them to have been entirely independent of it and to have been built at a prior date. He thinks that they are two links in the long chain of headlands fortified by earthen mounds that stretches along the coast of Ireland. These forts are regarded as the work of an ancient race which vanished, leaving no other trace.

—Something like authoritative information respecting the higher education of women in Germany is furnished by an address, delivered by special invitation at the recent National Social Congress in Kiel by Dr. Kate Windscheid of Leipzig, the first woman graduate of Heidelberg and a leader in the propaganda. Among other things, she drew attention to the fact that, in the development of the higher education of women, Switzerland made the beginning, while in Germany Leipzig and Göttingen early opened their lecture-rooms to women as guests. The greatest need at present is the establishment of more girls' gymnasia. Four of the great States that compose the German federation, namely, Prussia, Bavaria, Saxony, and Würtemberg, now permit women to apply for the *Abiturienten* examination, *i.° e.*, the test admitting to the universities. At twenty of the universities of the Fatherland women are permitted to attend lectures as "hearers." During the winter semester of 1897-98 there were 365 women in attendance at these institutions, and in the winter semester of 1898-99 in Prussia alone there were 414. The desire that these women be admitted to the full rights of students is being fulfilled first by Giessen, in accordance with a Senate resolution passed in January of the current year. Four of the German universities give the doctor's degree to women candidates. Admission to the medical examination is a matter of greatest importance, without which female physicians have no official standing. Women who have been in attendance at the universities are now engaged in two callings, namely, the medical and that of teaching. The women physicians in Germany number ten, five of whom are in Berlin. The higher education of women in Germany has come to stay. One important obstacle is yet to be overcome, namely, the fear of the "emancipated women." Dr. Windscheid, after replying to the current objections to the admission of women to the professional callings, closed with the statement that the modern woman can bid farewell to the nineteenth century with the full conviction that the dawning century will open up to her new and still greater spheres of usefulness.

—The Greek Government, which has long been agitating the introduction of the modern Greek pronunciation in the study of the classical Greek in the schools of the Continent, has again taken up the matter, and this time officially. The authorities have addressed a communication to the educational departments of the leading European governments, informing them that, according to the best modern scholarship, there can be no doubt that the neo-Greek pronunciation was, in general, current in ancient times, and asking them to investigate this question anew on the basis of the recent work of the Greek savant Papadimitrocopulos. Recognizing the fact that the prevalence of the Erasmean or Continental method is chiefly due to the supremacy of German educational ideas, a special request, in the sense of the general circular, is addressed to the Cultus Ministry of Prussia. In Germany

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the Erasmian method is firm in the saddle, the problem having been regarded as practically settled by the thorough investigations of Friedrich Bloss. Nor has the pronunciation so strongly favored by the Greek Government made any advances. Russia adopted the pronunciation favored by the Germans, and an attempt to introduce the rival method in Hungary signally failed. The work of Papadimitrocopulos does not seem as yet to be known to Western scholars, but it is generally understood that the Prussian Government—there is no Cultus or Educational Department for the Empire as such—will appoint a special commission to investigate the matter.

—In No. 2 of the *Mittheilungen* of the German Orientgesellschaft, the leader of the Babylonian Expedition sent out by the Society, Dr. R. Koldewey, describes the first fruits of that enterprise, and presents data which make it possible, for the first time in more than two thousand years, to test the correctness of the claims put forth by Herodotus and Diodorus to the effect that the wall of the city of Babylon was so wide that several chariots could drive upon it side by side. The German expedition has begun its work by digging a wide trench directly into the heart of the great Kasr mound from the east, and has made it possible to measure the famous wall. This "gigantic bulwark" consists of an outer wall, 7.25 metres in thickness, built of burnt brick bearing the stamp or impress of Nebuchadnezzar, and an inner wall 13.10 metres thick, while the filling between the two is 21.5 metres, making the enormous total of 41.85 metres. As yet, the diggers have penetrated only 17 metres into this mountain of ruins, but it is thought that now the palace walls themselves have been reached. The Society proposes to expend as much as a hundred thousand marks per annum for the next five years at least in this undertaking. A little brochure descriptive of the work, entitled 'Babylon,' to be issued at once, will contain an address by Prof. Friedrich Delitzsch, delivered in March, in the presence of the Emperor and Empress of Germany, who last year gave 20,000 marks to the association. It will also give a chart of the ruins. The publisher is Hinrichs of Leipzig.

RECENT NOVELS.

The Fowler. By Beatrice Harraden. Dodd, Mead & Co.

The Market-Place. By Harold Frederic. Frederick A. Stokes Co.

Sand 'n' Bushes. By Maria Louise Pool. Chicago: Herbert S. Stone & Co.

Richard Carvel. By Winston Churchill. Macmillan.

Mistress Content Cradock. By Annie Eliot Trumbull. A. S. Barnes & Co.

The Awakening. By Kate Chopin. Chicago: Herbert S. Stone & Co.

The Sixth Sense, and Other Stories. By Margaret Sutton Briscoe. Harper & Brothers.

When the Sleeper Wakes. By H. G. Wells. Harpers.

An Incident, and Other Happenings. By Sarah Barnwell Elliot. Harper & Brothers.

Rachel. By Jane H. Findlater. Doubleday & McClure Co.

Two Men o' Mendip. By Walter Raymond. Doubleday & McClure Co.

By Berwen Banks. By Allen Raine. D. Appleton & Co.

Miss Harraden's novel gives one the uneasy feeling of disproportion that an enlarged print of a small photograph does, in which the fine lines have become blurs and the shadings are blanks. The foundation idea is a good one, and would have made a good short book, had Miss Harraden been wise enough to leave to the imagination that which, by detailing, she has dissipated. The character of the Fowler—the little man who obtains intellectual ascendency over women, distorts their views of life and duty, and withers their enthusiasm—is so possible that he is made unreal by forcing him. Sitting in gardens with girls, and poisoning their joyous atmosphere with his cynicisms, he is a promising feature for a story, even for a sermon. But developed into a villain who keeps an autobiographic journal of his own fiendishness, he ceases to charm or to preach.

The minor characters suffer from similar treatment. The English landlady cheerfully tending three generations of "ancestors" at her fireside, and bullying her persistent lover, is amusing for a few pages, but not for many chapters. The frivolous, kindly trained nurse; the history-writing hero; the organ-playing, Persian-studying father; the British-Museum-haunting readers, the artistic and blighted book-binder—are well launched, but not well sustained. Even as it is, the book is not uninteresting, being written in Miss Harraden's ever-pleasing, clear, and unmannered style, and breathing her natural atmosphere of modern thought united with old-fashioned sanity. For our personal liking there is a glut in her word-market of "gallant" as applied to the heroine, and "quaint" as applied to everything; and if any one must "furridge" among papers, we wish it might be one of the villagers and not the historian.

'The Market Place' is as powerful in its way as 'Theron Ware' was in a differing line. Whereas the earlier story was a relentless exploitation of a theologic field and the movers therein, this later one is a dissection—a vivisection, one might say—of financial operation in its most bold, bad form. The unpunished rascal is growing to be a familiar figure in fiction, to the sorrow of the old-fashioned novel-reader, but few will complain that Mr. Frederic has made his fraudulent Rubber King an attractive example. Very subtly is the effect produced of the ugliness in a dishonest success—the hideousness of a man who feeds on his fellow-beings; for the novelist contrives that the more thorough the success is, the more hateful it appears; the more the man enlarges his aim, the more monstrous he shows forth; when we leave him about to "stand London on its head" in philanthropic reforms, we find him less justified and less tolerable than at any previous moment of his unjustifiable and intolerable career. He is depicted with amazing cleverness, his brutal nature (touched with occasional tendernesses) dominating every page. The leaves of the book turn as by electric cyclone. The hero's sister, as hard as himself and as scrupulous as he is the reverse, stands out well among the lesser figures. An American girl, steely, disillusioned, all-perceptive, looks out alive. The titled heroine is perhaps less real. The various men of business, victims or colleagues, make a Balzac-like group of figures in their differing and harmonized tints. It is a book of real force, and causes one to ask what heights its author might not have touched, with a longer life.

To take a walk on horseback down the length of Cape Cod, to breathe air more salt than that of mere sea, to feel the spell of bayberry wastes and sand dunes, to hear about the symptoms of Sarah Ramsey that married a Portugee—poor house-bound Sarah, whose view over the sand is kind of hindered by the new standpipe—this it is to read Miss Pool's 'Sand 'n' Bushes.' So reading and sharing the adventures of native and visitor, one wishes that the same pen might have described all the odd and fascinating crannies of the earth.

It would have been a great pity had Richard Carvel's autobiography been withheld from the public. Here is the scion of an old stock, reared in the province of Maryland, growing to manhood at the time when the war-cloud of the Revolution is beginning to darken the sky. He is the favorite and heir of his grandfather, the pet of his fellow-townsmen of Annapolis (excepting the uncle-villain), the beloved of the two heroines, the pride of the miller, the joy of the coachman, the glory of the boatmen, the observed of Washington. When he goes to England, he becomes the darling of John Paul Jones, the admired of Horace Walpole, the rival of Chartersea, the crony of Fox and the turning-point in Fox's career—his tale of the colonies making more impression on Fox than even Burke's. He calls upon Garrick in the green-room of the Drury Lane Theatre, in company with Lord Carlisle, visits Vauxhall in the society of Lady Sarah Lennox, wears Lady Carlisle's red rose, has snuff offered him by Lord Sandwich, talks horse with Lord Baltimore, and is among the gentlemen to whom Mrs. Clive directs witty remarks from the stage. Such are his friends; his adventures correspond. The windmill arms that he rides, the mobs that he quells, the pirates whom he escapes, the stallions that he tames, the duels that he fights, the sea-fights that he survives, are they not written in the book of Richard Carvel? Even of the two requisite blackguard foes does not one at last, coming to betray, remain to laud? Thus steeped in prestige, the hero carves his dramatic way through well-nigh five hundred and fifty pages, to which it is high tribute to say that the story is throughout interesting.

It is avowedly not so much history as a picture of Annapolis and the Eastern Shore, in Maryland's stateliest days, and of London when George the Third was blundering out his reign; when "macaronies" were betting and gambling all night at Brooks's, and the colonies were slipping away from their mother. The portrait of Fox is full of fascination, that of John Paul Jones equally so. The battle between the *Bonhomme Richard* and the *Serapis* is the crowning point of the romance. Wounded by a pike after the surrender, Richard Carvel is nursed by his one and only lady-love into life and happiness ever after. The "semblance of reality" which Mr. Churchill has aimed at giving to his Colonial picture has been attained. If we have found it over-long and the hero over-illustrious, it is still good, clean, spirited reading in all its phases. To keep sustained the language of a hundred and twenty years ago

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leads a writer into strange places, yet we may hope that an "ode abounding in orrery" hath a score to settle with the printer. A copy of the text might with advantage have been furnished to the illustrator.

Yet another book of colonial times, 'Mistress Content Cradock,' carries us farther north and a century and more earlier. We are on the more often described Massachusetts coast, attended by the more familiar Puritan figures of New England. The day of Mary Dyer is at hand. Cromwell's star is in the ascendant. Roger Williams is the idol of the bolder thinkers of the Providence and Massachusetts Colonies, and the admired despair of them of straiter ways of thought. Eliot is working his benefactions among the Indians. The lace ruffles of the Royalists are setting the colonies by the ears. The story is slight, but suffices to set off the background of old New England which is the real book. Even did it not bear its accomplished author's name, it would carry, on internal evidence, the proof of her affectionate knowledge of her subject.

'The Awakening' is the sad story of a Southern lady who wanted to do what she wanted to. From wanting to, she did, with disastrous consequences; but as she swims out to sea in the end, it is to be hoped that her example may lie for ever undredged. It is with high expectation that we open the volume, remembering the author's agreeable short stories, and with real disappointment that we close it. The recording reviewer drops a tear over one more clever author gone wrong. Mrs. Chopin's accustomed fine workmanship is here, the hinted effects, the well-expended epithet, the pellucid style; and, so far as construction goes, the writer shows herself as competent to write a novel as a sketch. The tint and air of Creole New Orleans and the Louisiana seacoast are conveyed to the reader with subtle skill, and among the secondary characters are several that are lifelike. But we cannot see that literature or the criticism of life is helped by the detailed history of the manifold and contemporary love affairs of a wife and mother. Had she lived by Prof. William James's advice to do one thing a day one does not want to do (in Creole society, two would perhaps be better), flirted less and looked after her children more, or even assisted at more *accouchements*—her *chef d'œuvre* in self-denial—we need not have been put to the unpleasantness of reading about her and the temptations she trumped up for herself.

Miss Briscoe's stories steadily grow in grace. They are written with a now rather old-fashioned minuteness. After Mrs. Chopin's crisp handling, for example, her considered style seems almost diffuse; yet her stories never reach the flagging point in motion or motive. She has usually something quite new to say, and says it pointedly and well. Love-problems, life-problems, eccentric portraits share her attention equally, and in every instance provide for the reader a delicately devised spice or sweet.

Mr. Wells's weird fancy finds ever more weird food to batten upon. From man-eating orchids and such simple pleasures he passed to militant Martians who froze the young blood. In his latest and most knotted and combined tale, he shows the vision that has been revealed to him of the world as it is to be two hundred years hence. This has happened to other prophets, but Mr. Wells, with his *flair* for the infinite possibilities of machinery, has seen so deeply into the details of the future that, instead of a socialistic or scientific fairy tale, we have a machine-shop; for naturally the world of two centuries hence is mainly a thing of machinery. The thirty-three millions who inhabit London "have cleared their minds of formulæ," mental and moral, and have no particular tastes, sentiments, or ideas. They refer "to the England of the nineteenth century as the figure of an idyllic, easy-going life." More human misery had been inflicted on the world during the twentieth century by financial convulsions and tariff wars than by the war, pestilence, and famine of the darkest days of earlier times, "because the wretchedness was dreary life instead of speedy death." An unlovely, cable-laced, electric-ridden place is the London of two hundred years to come, with cliff-like buildings reaching in honeycombed layers to the dome of St. Paul's; with moving roadways, with a phonographic press, with a Bedlam of metallic din, with incubator-bred babies, and "psychic surgery" supplying memory or forgetfulness as education may require. Most revolutionary of all, the flying-machine has been perfected; a foreign cohort can be summoned into London at an hour's warning. A certain sleeper awaking after a two hundred years' trance finds himself practically owner of this clanging, brawling, tramping world. Political bosses have dreaded the awakening, but the masses of men look to it as the signal for their redemption. "When the sleeper wakes" has become the class watchword. For the masses the millennium is still remote. Out of the Salvation Army, among other organizations, has been reconstructed a business company which trades in labor and drives hard bargains for it. The sleeper burns to help them, inspired by the lofty counsels of a girl. The culmination is his single-handed fight in a flying-machine against an aerial navy that is bringing a hated negro police force from Africa into London to crush the toiling millions. Thus opens a new field of fiction! Let imitators beware—imitators who do not possess Mr. Wells's peculiar gift. What will become of us if Hope, Weyman, and their ilk fight all their battles o'er again in the sky?

There is more than the timely choice of a theme to make the title-piece, 'An Incident,' chiefest among the short stories of Miss Elliot's volume. Apart from questions of artistic value, the world is interested in a Southern woman's presentation of the lynching problem. But it is not the least proof of the author's skill that she relies so slightly on the adventitious; that, in reading, one is able to forget, until recalled by the feebleness of the final paragraph, that the problem is of the present. In its severity of outline, swift movement, sinister suggestion of more than meets the eye, the sketch shows qualities which should make for its endurance though all our negroes were deported to Africa or exterminated like Filipinos. There is promise as well as performance in the "Other Happenings" which make up the volume. These studies, for the most part of Southern types far removed from the mountaineer and negro who have more than borne their part in fiction, point hopefully to a larger work in this direction. Southern writers have appeared to stand in need of the Gilbertian injunction, "Spurn not the nobly born," so careful has been their avoidance of the higher social orders. Miss Elliot's observations show the sympathy of one who is part of what she describes, yet they are as evidently made with clear eyes not sealed by tradition. The field before her is a rich one.

The author of 'Rachel,' unlike Meredith, does not preface the story of the tragic comedians with her acknowledgments to history, but it is impossible to doubt that through her pages moves one figure that has "breathed stouter air than fiction's." In outward incident, at least, the life story of Michael Fletcher closely paraphrases that of the "simple-hearted giant," Edward Irving. Rachel herself bears little resemblance to the other actor in the real drama, save that her wit and charm awaken the love of the strangely gifted young divine who, in profound ignorance of his own heart, had pledged himself to marry another. There was no Miss Martin of Kirkcaldy to be dealt with, and Rachel's common sense would have made no problem of the situation; but Michael's character, his pitying irresolution, provide his inexorable Fate. He goes to Edinburgh to free himself. He returns to fall weeping at Rachel's feet, confessing that he has married Ellen. Then drags the afterward. Michael has prophetic gifts. He leads a new sect, the Foreseers; he is called to London and becomes the sensation of the hour. Inspiration failing him, he resorts to charlatan tricks to fill his church. Health and reason totter. Before the final crash, with his head bowed in his hands, he cries out, "One woman I knew who might have saved me from myself with her brave wits and her dear sharp tongue." It was Mrs. Carlyle who said there would have been no gift of tongues if she had married Edward Irving. It is truly a furrowing lesson in life that is thus read to us. The consequences of that immoral morality, a loveless marriage, are more often traced in their relation to a woman's life; that men escape them as little this fact-woven fiction pitifully reminds us.

'Two Men o' Mendip' is a tale of Somersetshire in the grim days when a man's life went for a sheep's in Merry England; when the stream of human passion, undeterred by eddying modern complexities, ran swift and straight. The tragedy which casts its shadow over the story from the beginning has nothing malignant about it; it is rather the working out of a retributive fate, involving, as even justice often must, the suffering of the innocent. Little Patty Winterhead, caught in the resistless sweep of consequences, was spared the worst, for she met death at the side of her murdered lover, all unknowing that her father's hand had stricken him down, or that his own shedding of human blood had brought this vengeance upon him. When John Winterhead gave himself up to the law for the doom which his honest soul demanded for himself, the debt of blood was paid, but the reader is left curiously sympathizing with two murderers, one of whom dealt death to the other. Everything in the telling of the story is well in keeping with the time and place of the events, and the setting of country freshness, of simple, hearty Somerset speech, gives relief to the hard deeds that were wrought in Mendip.

'By Berwen Banks' distinguishes itself from the multitudinous romances of its class by its background of Welsh scenery, an occasional Welsh phrase, and the more

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than common fatuity of its heroine. This young woman allows her good name to be blighted and her child's paternity to be left a matter of surmise, through her sublime adherence to a promise not to reveal her secret marriage. The absent husband wonderfully foresees some of the possible difficulties of his wife's position, and absolves her from her inconvenient obligation in a letter which could not fail, in a book of this sort, to miscarry. A blow on the head then deprives him of the small sense with which the author has endowed him. Unconscious of his own identity, he wanders for a year or so in a strange land, while the wife hears nothing and suffers many things. The harrowed reader of all this may find consolation in the final felicity of the tried and trying twain.

LEIBNIZ REWRITTEN.

La Nouvelle Monadologie. Par Ch. Renouvier et L. Prat. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie. 1899. 8vo, pp. 546.

The nature of things would seem to have a screw loose if the powers of a Renouvier are not to be of service to the race. When we see a man far advanced in the eighties producing, albeit with a collaborator, a great volume of metaphysics, terse, clear, and well-oriented, it is certainly not on his shoulders that we can lay the blame if his industry should teach the world nothing. The principles of Renouvier's philosophy were published in the earlier years of the Second Empire, with the disadvantage of a too modest title. It was mainly other causes, however, that at first prevented the work from being as much studied as it deserved to be. Of late years it has in France been, perhaps, more studied than it deserved to be; but it has not been as *well* studied as it deserved to be. The author belonged to that group of schools in which the ideas of Kant were still paramount. Those schools never fully ripened their fruit, because the attention of the strongest men was turned away to the rich conceptions that the mechanical theory of heat and the Darwinian hypothesis about that time suggested. None of the Kantians had more thoroughly learned their master's great lesson than this Frenchman—the lesson that metaphysics can be solidly founded only upon the science of logic. Unfortunately, Kant, though a logical Samson, had yet treated that science with what we can but call, in view of the importance he attributed to it, inexcusable levity; and his followers had always accepted his logical dicta most uncritically, just as they have ever since continued to do. The ailment contained in De Morgan's and Boole's studies had not been assimilated by anybody; nor had mathematical reasoning taken on its modern exactitude. What was meant, in that *Quarterly Review* period, by good logic had for its principal ingredient a forcible and imposing style of writing. Renouvier was, and is, not only an able logician in that sense, after the best French models, but even according to the more scientific standard of mediæval Paris. But now, fifty years after his acme, if we demand that he shall satisfy the requirements of the exact logic which has since grown up, it is not surprising that we find he falls so far short of it that his conclusions as a whole can no longer be accepted. At many points his well-elaborated thought would be extremely valuable if some modern logician of the first strength would take the trouble to disentangle it from other elements with which it is interlaced. It is lamentable that such a labor is not likely to get performed, since M. Prat has not proved adequate to the task, and yet one does not find where to lay the blame for its non-performance unless it be upon the logic of events and the nature of things.

The present work undertakes the noble task of rewriting the so-called 'Monadologie' of Leibniz, and of more fully developing its philosophy after indispensable corrections. The doctrine is very nearly the same as that of his first philosophical treatise from which he at one time seemed to be wandering. The 'Monadologie' is rewritten in a Kantian spirit; and as time increases the distance from which we survey the Kantian philosophy, its affinities with that of Leibniz appear closer than they formerly did.

We cannot give much idea of what has been packed into these five hundred-odd pages, further than to say that they discuss most of the usual problems of metaphysics and much besides. The main doctrine is that of Leibniz, that the universe is composed of units, indivisible and endowed with consciousness. The doctrine of pre-established harmony is retained—that the monads do not act on one another in any other sense than that while each one follows out its own destiny in the succession of its modifications of consciousness, these have been arranged so as to harmonize and to amount practically to actions upon one another. But here the authors bid farewell to Leibniz. The law of sufficient reason is hardly mentioned in the book, but is practically rejected in every aspect of it. Of course, with this law the bottom of optimism falls out. In place of Leibniz's principle of the identity of indiscernibles, that things other than one another must differ in some qualities, Scotus's doctrine of hecceity (substantially that of Kant) is adopted—that individual existence is no general character, but is an irrational act. An important departure from Leibniz is the rejection of all actual infinite multitude (and hence, of all continuity) as self-contradictory. Kantian nominalism is carried to an extreme, every conception of intellectual value (space, time, etc.) being regarded as untrue of substances. Kant himself allows us to surmise that there is some unintelligible root from which each special appearance springs, although all that makes them intelligible is our own embroidery. But in this monadism the nakedness of the thing in itself is laid bare, and it plainly appears that nothing exists but monads and their harmonizing dreams. A single monad, we are told, transcends the limits of possible experience, although some finite collection of them is cognizable.

The position of Renouvier concerning determinism has excited enough curiosity to make it worth defining. Five opinions on this subject are current to-day. The common one, which may be attributed to Boyle, is that nature is a machine working according to exact laws (like the differential equations of dynamics), while the conditions to which those laws apply (like the constants of integration) are entirely arbitrary. Or, this may be expressed by saying that Nature syllogizes in her action; the ultimate major premises being laws, and the ultimate minor premises irrational facts. There are two opinions more deterministic than this. The first is that even the initial conditions of the universe are perfectly regular. This opinion still leaves room for accidents, such, for example, as that a number of bodies should at one instant come into symmetrical positions. The extreme of determinism, held by Leibniz, supposes that every aspect of every fact is subject to reason, so that there is a special Providence in the fall of a sparrow. There remain two opinions less deterministic than the common one. One of these, which has been called Tychism, is that there are minute departures in nature from any general formula which can be assigned, so that there is a certain element of absolute chance. This is the position maintained by C. S. Peirce a few years ago in the *Monist*. It had already been held by Boutroux, quite incidentally, however, and not as a prominent feature of his argument in favor of the contingency of natural laws. But this is not the opinion of Renouvier. He holds that all causality is exact and produces its component effect, but that, in addition, there are component influences which spring direct from the arbitrary action of the monad. Perhaps Boutroux had in mind something like this when he spoke of "une sorte de jeu laissé aux cadres logiques." These actions, though arbitrary in the sense of not being rational functions of preceding events, are all provided for in the pre-established harmony, and thus duly produce their component effects (or quasi-effects) upon other monads.

Three critical questions are apposite to the new monadism. The first is, Supposing we were to grant all its propositions, how far would it constitute a satisfactory philosophy? What is it that philosophy ultimately hopes to accomplish? It is, if we mistake not, to find that there is some intelligible truth, some absolutely valid reasonableness, to ascertain how far this reasonableness governs the universe, and to learn how we may best do its service. It may be this hope is not destined to be realized, although, being reasonable, it acts to strengthen itself. It may be that reasonableness essentially requires an element of unreason, a brute force, on which and with which to accomplish itself; but in that case we hope that this unreason may turn out capable of becoming infused with reason. There must be nothing hopelessly and finally unreasonable, or in so far philosophy is to no purpose and its hope is vain. But the new monadism presents many such irrational features. What possible reason can there be for the existence of the precise finite number of monads that there are, rather than for one more? Since the monads do not metaphysically act upon one another, what rational purpose is subserved by the real existence of so many? The mere dream of them by one would do as well. Why should each monad have the three peculiar characters of intelligence, passion, and will, or why should any phenomena be as they are? In short, the absolutely inexplicable pervades the whole system, while one supremely antirational nominalism is supreme over the whole. Continuity is nothing but that modification of generality which is proper to the logic of relatives; and generality is of the essence of rationality. Yet this new monadism makes all continuity a false illusion and all generality equally so. Persuade him that this is true, and what is there for a philosopher but to hug a delusion

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to his heart as being, by virtue of its reasonableness, infinitely more real than the wretched abortion that the world of reality would so turn out to be? Rather hope that some corrected Hegelianism is the truth, or, better still, that, as the elder James taught, the Reasonable One sets off over against himself an irrational phantom upon which his warmth and light may be brought to pass.

The second question is, how far the reasoning of this work is sound. The opening section sets forth that conception of a simple substance which is the very cornerstone of monadism, without which the whole erection would crumble. Nobody is unaware that most thinkers now reject any such idea. The subject of an attribute, they say, is nothing but a group of phenomena differing from a metaphysical substance in not being permanent, like that old jackknife. Even Kant declared the conception of substance has no validity beyond possible experience. It was incumbent on our authors, then, to begin by proving that there is any substance other than the universe as a whole. Instead of this, they so naïvely take the matter for granted as to give a definition of substance which would make it a mere way of thinking. They parade a pretended demonstration that a contradiction is involved in supposing a substance to be infinitely divisible, or, what is precisely the same thing (though they do not so treat it), in supposing an infinite multitude of substances. We will not stop to point out the glaring fallacy of that "demonstration." Modern logic enables us to show that it is absurd to say there is a contradiction in supposing an infinite multitude of substances. There is certainly an infinite multitude of finite whole numbers. True, these are only possibilities, not substances. But according to the principle of hecceity, admitted by the authors, mere substantial existence is no general character and cannot create a contradiction. In other words, what is possibly possible is possibly actual.

How far can this work be regarded as the natural perfecting of the philosophy of Leibniz? Leibniz had more sides than one. If we consider him as above all else an extreme nominalist, and expunge from his celebrated paper all that tends in the opposite direction, the development of what would remain might not be very different from the *nouvelle monadologie* minus its free-will doctrine. But if we deem a man to be best represented by that one of his ideas which shows most prepotency, it is in the direction of the differential calculus that we must look for the genuine Leibniz, and in philosophy we must regard the law of continuity as most Leibnizian. This principle would at once do away with the isolated monads, and render the extravagant and unverifiable hypothesis of preëstablished harmony superfluous by directly solving the riddle of the transitivity of causation, while it would form the basis of a philosophy in deepest unison with the ideas of the last half of the nineteenth century.

Old Cambridge. By Thomas Wentworth Higginson. Macmillan Co. 1899.

We have here the initial volume of a series of "National Studies in American Letters," edited by Prof. George Edward Woodberry. The general scheme saves Mr. Higginson's book from any suspicion of his attempting to improve on Lowell's 'Cambridge Thirty Years Ago,' with which unavoidably he competed in his 'Cheerful Yesterdays' to some extent, and convinced us that Lowell had not "taken up the road behind him," as goes the country phrase. Mr. Higginson's book treats of Old Cambridge (meaning by that the Cambridge whose history is already made) from a predominantly and almost exclusively literary point of view. He is very generous in attributing to all the Cambridge boys of fifty years ago his own early knowledge of the Cambridge tradition of learning and patriotism. It is, however, probable that he was a distinct example of that precocity which was, he says, "an essential part of the atmosphere of Old Cambridge," and to which Margaret Fuller and Dr. Hedge contributed notable illustrations, Dr. Hedge being fitted for college at eleven, and having read at least half of the whole body of Latin literature before that time. The extent to which Mr. Higginson is able to avoid the matter used in his 'Cheerful Yesterdays' and yet write so charmingly is highly creditable to his memory and to the fulness of his reminiscent mind. The repetitions are comparatively few, and generally are frankly introduced as old acquaintances.

The literary productiveness of Cambridge from its foundation up is piously affirmed, and proved by many happy illustrations. No youngsters sat on the sepulchral slabs of the old churchyard more joyously than Mr. Higginson dwells upon the elaborate inscriptions of those slabs, and on the weight with which they pressed on the poetic minds of Longfellow and Holmes and Lowell. President Uriah Oakes would be invaluable as a writer of headlines for the sensational journals of our time. Witness the title of his sermon for the Artillery Election of 1674: "The Unconquerable, All Conquering, and More than Conquering Soldier." The mention of Levi Hedge, who became Professor of Logic and Metaphysics in 1810, brings to mind an anecdote from which Mr. Higginson has tenderly refrained. George William Curtis introduced Mr. Blaine and Dr. Frederic H. Hedge to each other at the Concord celebration of 1875. Mr. Blaine, with the exuberant self-consciousness of the man saying the right thing at the right moment, said, "One hardly needs an introduction to the author of 'Hedge's Rhetoric,'" and Dr. Hedge, making himself as tall as possible, answered, "I am getting to be an old man, Mr. Blaine (he was just seventy), but I am not yet old enough to be my own father." Such things will sometimes happen in the best regulated minds.

An interesting point is that made with reference to the literary families of Cambridge—the correlated and persistent literary habit shown by several of these. Mr. Higginson cannot resist a few reminiscences less purely literary than the rest, as that the boys of his generation swore "By Goffe-Whalley," the regicides whose names, as Mr. Higginson said, in his oration on the 250th anniversary of the settlement of Cambridge, were "the objects of malediction throughout one continent and the vehicle of it in another." Lowell's "humorous enjoyment of the under side of human nature" is mentioned and illustrated with a fine story of his going down to East Cambridge jail to release an early playmate for "the glorious Fourth," at the solicitation of another who happened to be out of jail at that particular time. The mutual good will of the Cambridge literary set is dwelt upon. It was not inconsistent with frank mutual criticism like that of Dr. Holmes on the incongruity of the New England setting of "The Vision of Sir Launfal." Lowell's attack on Margaret Fuller in the "Fable" is not forgotten; it is several times returned to. Mr. Higginson wishes that Lowell had, on second thought, omitted it as he did the passage on Prof. Bowen. It is not quite fair for Mr. Higginson, in his persistent blame of Lowell's treatment of Miss Fuller, to omit the fact that Lowell had meant to leave her out altogether, but that "even Maria thought I ought to give her a line or two."

Mr. Higginson's second chapter has for its subject "Old Cambridge in Three Literary Epochs." These are the epochs of the *North American Review*, the *Dial*, and the *Atlantic Monthly*. The endeavor, successfully carried out, with some slight forcing of the note, is to show how lively the connection was between the Cambridge literary set, from generation to generation, with these periodicals. The *North American* is named as the lineal successor of the *Monthly Anthology*. We had supposed that this distinction belonged to the *Christian Examiner*, with the *General Repository* and *Christian Disciple* for connecting links. The dates of their several beginnings seem to prove as much. It would be interesting to know on what grounds Mr. Higginson assigns Dwight's unique poem "Rest" to his Divinity School days—before 1836—seeing that it was originally published in the first number of the *Dial*, in 1840, at the end of a sermon. It is true that the Divinity students produced many good hymns, if not much good poetry. The history of the *Atlantic Monthly* is carried back to 1853, four years before its first public appearance, and in a very interesting manner. Two letters from Francis J. Underwood to Mr. Higginson in 1853 tell the story. It was the project of Mr. Underwood, "who desired to enlist the leading authors of New England in the crusade against slavery." Jewett was to be the publisher, but his business failure, notwithstanding the success of 'Uncle Tom's Cabin,' called a halt, and, when the project was taken up again, it was by Phillips & Sampson, who had refused to publish 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' because it was an anti-slavery book.

There are three chapters, devoted respectively to Holmes, Longfellow, and Lowell, in which Mr. Higginson blends criticism and recollection in a delightful manner. Holmes is contrasted with Lowell as beginning conservative and afterwards joining the revolt, while Lowell, barring the class-poems, began with radicalism and became conservative. Mr. Higginson thinks he had little interest in the anti-slavery cause in the middle fifties; but then, during that period, for some reason or other, the tide of life was slack with him in every way. Mr. Higginson prints a letter in which an eye-witness vividly describes the scene which cost Lowell his rustication in the last weeks of his college course. The name of the writer has been given elsewhere, and puts the nature of the episode beyond a doubt. One of Lowell's best letters is reproduced from 'Letters of R. W. Griswold.' It describes, with many other things, the starting of the Town and Country Club. Alcott suggested "Olympians" as a good name, but, meeting with a head wind, tacked and proposed "Pan." As there was

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to be a café annexed, Lowell thought "Coffee-pot" would be better, or "Patty-Pan." Hence, possibly, Emerson's description of Brook Farm: "a perpetual picnic, a French Revolution in small, an Age of Reason in a patty-pan."

The institution of the *Atlantic* meant a new birth for Lowell as well as for Holmes. Concerning the latter we have what certainly appears to be an Hibernicism. In the "Autocrat" Holmes is said to have struck out "a wholly new career"; and then we read, "This is all the more remarkable from the fact that he had begun a similar venture long before without attracting much attention." There is an extremely interesting comparison of Lowell's style with that of Holmes, to the former's disadvantage. "Lowell was always liable to be entangled in his own wealth of thought." Curious examples are given; in the "Ode to Happiness" half-a-dozen metaphors tumble over each other in less than a dozen lines. Lowell's taste also is impeached, his lack of self-denial when he was tempted by an unseasonable pun. "The Cathedral" furnishes a striking instance, and thereby hangs a tale which Mr. Higginson ignores. It is that Lowell omitted the whole passage containing the pun (nineteen lines), and, making no other change, left a pronoun which at first referred to the "two Englishmen," to refer to "the flies" who shared his dinner at the pea-green inn.

The chapter upon Longfellow was sure to be less humorous than the others, but it has all the mellow kindliness of the man whom it describes—if "suggests" would not be the better word. Rowena Pratt, the Village Blacksmith's wife, was Mr. Higginson's nurse in his infancy, so that if he did not imbibe the poetry of Longfellow with his mother's milk, he came very near to that. The degree to which Longfellow foresaw the literary career that he looked back upon from the summit of his years, was certainly remarkable. So was his kindness to people of all sorts, friends and enemies. Many novel incidents could have been spared better than the well-worn story of the unspeakable bore of whom Longfellow said, "Who will be kind to him if I am not?" There was something better than his best poem in the spirit of those words.

Letters from Japan. By Mrs. Hugh Fraser. The Macmillan Co.

Many pairs of eyes have looked upon the Mikado's empire from many points of view, but few spectators have enjoyed both the inward and spiritual as well as the ocular power of seeing, joined to such abundant and unique opportunity as Mrs. Fraser, the wife of the late British Envoy to Japan. She had an American grandfather, heard early of Japan from our own Townsend Harris, lived long on this continent and in China, and by experience and culture was well prepared not only to see but to enjoy Japan. Having already a practised pen and fine literary ability, as shown in a novel or two, she has given us a brace of volumes which are delightful for their style alone. Arriving in Tokio in April, 1889, she lived three years in the imperial capital, and wrote these letters, following no method beyond that suggested by the interests and the fancy of the moment. She attempted no detailed description of the empire, its history, customs, or philosophy. Yet these chapters show that the fine art of letter-writing is not yet wholly lost, while the subtle charm of the work arises from the fact that here was a disciplined and cultivated woman in presence of a people "simple to frankness, yet full of unexpected reserves, of hidden strengths and dignities of power never flaunted before the eyes of the world." Having the liberty to "visit any spot and remain in it for any length of time," she became gradually aware of the many-sided and complex character of the people. With reverence, delight, and appreciation, she made herself acquainted with the mental soil out of which have grown the poetry, the legends, the history, the ideals, and the conventionalities of the Japanese. She saw that not only in peace but in war time the two highest virtues of their national life, love of country and sense of duty, had been growing deep and strong in the heart of the race. The years of her stay were those which will count in history as the first of Japan's majority, for these followed the proclamation of the Constitution.

The letters describe the places dear to tourists, such as the Inland Sea, Atami, Miyanoshita, Enoshima, Kamakura, Nikko, Karuizawa, and other places within a hundred miles or so of Tokio; but with the sparkling descriptions and spicy adventures are given also the old legends and fairy tales put into exquisite English. And, since the British envoy's wife could command the best interpreters and scholars, both ladies and gentlemen, native and foreign, we find in these pages a firmness of touch, a brilliancy of color, a satisfying accuracy in the stories here so charmingly reproduced, not usual in other books. The descriptions of Japanese social life reveal these Oriental men and women as people of great refinement not only, but of deep and tender feeling. Whereas writers whom we might name show the Japanese spirit and temperament from the standpoint of the philosopher, or with the animus of those not altogether in love with Occidental methods of life and thought, Mrs. Fraser speaks with an artlessness that simply shows how her sisters act in joy and grief. We get behind the screens. Or it may be that hers is the consummate art which conceals art, when we are told how the Empress, on hearing of the injuries to the Tsesarevitch, walked the floor all night in a storm of grief, less in sorrow because of the humiliation of her country than of sympathy with the young man's mother, who might hear of the wound and flowing blood and not know how slight the injury was.

There are not a few valuable hints as to the inside history of politics during this time, when treaty revision was the burning theme and assassination was in the air. In faith a Roman Catholic, the author's sympathies are broad and deep. It would be hard, we imagine, to find more appreciative interpretations, not only of other phases of the Christian faith, but also of the religions which furnish spiritual nourishment to the Japanese people. The same earnest desire to understand the social orthodoxy of Japan is manifest on every page. We have in these two volumes a running and readable commentary on the thoughts and ways and art of the islanders.

The publishers have given these letters an attractive setting in two volumes of nearly four hundred pages each, with large type on heavy paper. The illustrations, 250 in number, evidently selected with great care, enrich and illuminate the text. To the increasing number of those who seriously study the Japanese people, these "letters" cannot be reckoned as ephemeral literature, but, besides being the solace of leisure hours, must take their place with those luminous commentaries on Japanese life and character which our countrymen, Knapp, Bacon, Lowell, Hearn, Lafarge, Gordon, and others have already furnished.

State Trials of Mary Queen of Scots, Sir Walter Raleigh, and Capt. William Kidd. Condensed from the State Trials of Hargrave and Howell, by Charles Edward Lloyd. Chicago: Callaghan & Co. 1899.

At the recent Exposition at Omaha, the Department of Justice displayed among other things copies of the State Trials in Great Britain, and the custodian of these volumes, having looked into them, conceived the idea of making them accessible to the public. This volume is the first of a proposed series, and it will scarcely be possible in those which are to follow to present matter of such romantic interest as is here set forth. Men will never tire, apparently, of the story of Mary Stuart; nor has the ill fame of Capt. Kidd waned with the lapse of time. The fate of Raleigh, also, has a perennial power of arousing both indignation and pity, and the final collapse of the empire of Spain gives a present interest to the career of one of her most formidable assailants.

The trial of the Scottish Queen, however, has been narrated with more dramatic effect than is produced by the rather bald record here given. We can construct the drama from these materials, but they are somewhat dry and meagre. So of Kidd's trial; it has a technical interest for lawyers, but all the glamour of piracy, such as Stevenson created in 'Treasure Island,' has vanished. No better argument, however, for the exemption of private property from capture at sea can be imagined than the history of this regularly commissioned privateer, whose misdeeds lay in not regarding what flag was carried by his prizes. Raleigh's trial bears a striking resemblance to the proceedings in the Dreyfus case, and suggests that, as great improvement has been made in judicial procedure in England, there may be hope for France. The behavior of Coke in this case has been often denounced, but it is well enough that his outrageous language should be quoted in full. No other condemnation is needed. Raleigh was to be sacrificed, and Coke carried through the business with fiendish malignity.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Brown, C. W. Nathan Hale, the Martyr Spy. J. S. Ogilvie Co. 25c.
Crew, Prof. Henry. The Elements of Physics. Macmillan. $1.10.
Eaton, D. B. The Government of Municipalities. Macmillan. $4.
Fisher, Prof. Anna A. Burke on Conciliation. Boston: B. H. Sanborn & Co.
Galton, Rev. Arthur. The Message and Position of the Church of England. London: Kegan Paul.
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